

LANDSCAPE ARCHAEOLOGY AND ITS APPROACH TO CULTURAL
HERITAGE MANAGEMENT: THE TROAD AS A CASE STUDY

GÜLSÜN KORU

JANUARY 2010

LANDSCAPE ARCHAEOLOGY AND ITS APPROACH TO CULTURAL
HERITAGE MANAGEMENT: THE TROAD AS A CASE STUDY

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL
SCIENCES OF MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

GÜLSÜN KORU

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN THE PROGRAM OF
SETTLEMENT ARCHAEOLOGY

JANUARY 2010

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Sencer Ayata
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Prof. Dr. Numan Tuna
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Prof. Dr. Numan Tuna
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Numan TUNA (METU, SA) _____

Prof. Dr. Vedat TOPRAK (METU, GEOE) _____

Assist. Prof. Dr. Evangelia PİŞKİN (METU, SA) _____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name : Gülsün, KORU

Signature :

ABSTRACT

LANDSCAPE ARCHAEOLOGY AND ITS APPROACH TO CULTURAL HERITAGE MANAGEMENT: THE TROAD AS A CASE STUDY

Koru, Gülsün

M. Sc., Department of Settlement Archaeology

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Numan Tuna

January 2010, 101 Pages

This thesis tries to define 'landscape archaeology' as a concept; it describes and analyzes the key landscape archaeology types, dynamics, and approaches. Then, it aims to define the landscape archaeological characteristics of the Troad Region in this context.

The archaeological landscape character of the Troad Region shapes the importance of the area, not only for the Anatolian culture, but also for the European cultures and for archaeology discipline. Hence, the necessity of conservation works for the area with the horizon of this concept gains importance. Thesis defines what had been done for the area in terms of conservation and reviews the Long Term Development Plan prepared for the Troia Historical National Park Area. With a critical view of what has been done and what has not been done, it tries to emphasize the importance of grasping the landscape archaeological character of the area in conservation and management plan works. It gives a general guideline to ensure a sustainable future for the historic, cultural, social, economic and environmental nature and qualities of these kinds of areas.

Keywords: Landscape archaeology, cultural landscape, cultural heritage management, conservation master plan

ÖZ

PEYZAJ ARKEOLOJİSİ VE KÜLTÜREL MİRAS YÖNETİMİNDEKİ YERİ: ÖRNEK ÇALIŞMA ALANI OLARAK TROAS BÖLGESİ

Koru, Gülsün

Yüksek Lisans, Yerleşim Arkeolojisi Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Numan Tuna

Ocak 2010, 101 Sayfa

Bu tez çalışması kavram olarak 'peyzaj arkeolojisi'ni tanımlamakta, temel arkeolojik peyzaj tipleri, dinamikleri ve yaklaşımlarını sunmaktadır. Bu çerçevede, Troas Bölgesini bir arkeolojik peyzaj alanı olarak incelemektedir.

Troas Bölgesinin arkeolojik peyzaj karakteri, buranın sadece Anadolu kültürü için değil, Avrupa kültürleri ve arkeoloji disiplini için de önemini şekillendirmektedir. Dolayısıyla, alanın bu yaklaşım ile korunması gerekliliği önem kazanmaktadır. Tez çalışması 'koruma' anlamında alan için neler yapıldığını anlatmakta ve Troia Tarihi Milli Parkı için hazırlanan Uzun Devreli Gelişme Planı'nı incelemektedir. Burada nelerin yapıp, nelerin yapılmadığı eleştirisini yaparak, koruma ve yönetim plan çalışmalarında alanın arkeolojik peyzaj karakterinin anlaşılmasının önemini vurgulamaya çalışmaktadır. Ayrıca, tarihi, kültürel, sosyal, ekonomik ve çevresel değerlerin ve buna sahip alanların kalitesinin sürdürülebilir bir şekilde korunması için bir genel ilkeler klavuzu sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Peyzaj arkeolojisi, kültürel peyzaj, kültürel miras yönetimi, koruma master planı

To My Family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Numan Tuna for his great support, encourage and understanding. He has been very kind, wise and tolerant with me. He always inspired me from the very beginning of the master programme till the end. Because of him, I could define my path not only within my thesis but also in my whole career.

I want to express my sincere thanks to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Baykan Günay and Instructor Erhan Acar from METU; Assist. Prof. Dr. Rüstem Aslan from Çanakkale 18 Mart University; Necati Uyar and Hüseyin Yeldiren from Egeplan Planlama Ltd. for their help and support in my research.

I would also like to thank my employer Cengiz Kabaoğlu and friends working in KA.BA Ltd. for their support. They kindly endured my absence in the work place.

Motivation and moral support of some close friends will also always be remembered.

But most of all I would like to thank my parents, my sister and my brother, who strongly believed that I was capable of successfully completing yet another part of my academic career. Among them, my husband Aziz Koru also deserves a special acknowledgement.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
ÖZ.....	v
DEDICATION.....	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xiv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. LANDSCAPE ARCHAEOLOGY.....	3
2.1. Why It Is Necessary to Study the Landscape Archaeology.....	3
2.2. Definitions and Different Approaches to Landscape Archaeology.....	4
2.2.1. Archaeological Point of View.....	8
2.3. Two Different Classification of Approaches to Landscape Archaeology.....	9
2.3.1. Wilkinson’s Classification.....	9
2.3.2. Preucel and Hodder’s Classification.....	12

2.3.3. An Integrated Approach to Archaeological Landscapes.....	13
2.4. Some Basic Issues of Landscape Archaeology.....	13
2.4.1. Landscape as Palimpsest (multi – layered feature).....	13
2.4.2. Signature Landscapes.....	13
2.4.3. Persistent Places.....	14
2.4.4. Landscape Taphonomy.....	15
2.5. Landscape Dynamics.....	16
2.6. History and the Development of the Concept Landscape Archaeology.....	17
2.7. Cultural Landscapes vs. Landscape Archaeology.....	20
2.7.1. What is Cultural Landscape?.....	20
2.7.2. UNESCO’s Point of View and Different Types of Landscape.....	22
2.7.3. Themes on Landscape.....	25
2.7.4. Historical Background of Linking Nature and Culture in Terms of UNESCO’s Perspective.....	28
3. TROAD AND ITS ARCHAEOLOGICAL LANDSCAPE.....	32
3.1. Location and Geography.....	32
3.2. Significance of the Troad.....	34

3.3. Various Periods of its History.....	35
3.4. Methodology used by Scholars for Archaeological Landscape Analysis of the Region.....	37
3.4.1. Techniques and Analysis.....	37
3.4.2. Data Sources and Techniques.....	37
3.4.3. Data Recovery by Fieldwork.....	38
3.5. Troia and Troad Landscape Elements.....	41
3.5.1. Present Landscape Characteristics and Environmental Context.....	41
3.5.2. Strabo's Definition of Geology and Geomorphology of the Troad.....	46
3.5.3. Geology, Geomorphology and the Formation Of The Black Meander (Scamander or Troia) Plain.....	48
3.5.4. Homer's Landmarks in Troia.....	53
3.5.5. The Coherence of the Scientific Informations With Topographical Indications in Homer's Iliad.....	53
3.5.6. Ottoman Period.....	54
3.5.7. The Coast Line and the Layers of Troia.....	59
3.6. Archaeological Settlements in the Troad.....	62
3.6.1. Assos.....	64

3.6.2. Neandria.....	65
3.6.3. Alexandria Troas.....	65
3.6.4. Settlement and Houses in the Troad from Ottoman to Republican Era.....	66
3.6.5. The Troad's Ethnic Richness.....	67
3.6.6. Constitution and Development of City of Çanakkale.....	68
4. REVIEWING PREVIOUS PLANNING WORKS OF THE AREA IN TERMS OF LANDSCAPE ARCHAEOLOGY ISSUES AND DEFINING POSSIBLE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES.....	71
4.1. Management and Planning History of the Area.....	71
4.1.1. South Çanakkale Coastal Area Master Plan (1/25000).....	72
4.1.2. Troia Historical National Park Long Term Development Plan Decisions.....	75
4.2. Management of Archaeological Sites and Cultural Landscapes.....	78
4.2.1. The Character of the Management Plan.....	78
4.2.2. Stages of Preparation of Management Plan.....	79
4.2.3. Cultural Landscape as a Concept within Management Plans.....	82
4.2.4. Cultural Landscapes in International Documents.....	83

4.2.5. European Landscape Convention and Its Efforts to Cultural Landscape Management.....	84
4.2.6. Identifying the Most Important Landscape Types.....	85
4.2.7. The Process of Cultural Landscape Conservation.....	87
4.2.8. Requirements for Management of Cultural Landscapes.....	88
4.2.9. Guidance on Protected Landscapes and Organizational Responsibility.....	90
4.3. Conclusions.....	92
REFERENCES.....	96

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1. Geomorphologic Units, Soils and Vegetation.....	46
Table 2. Layers of Troia.....	61

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1. Location in the Region.....	33
Figure 2. Satellite Image of the Region.....	34
Figure 3. Chronology of Troia.....	36
Figure 4. Climatic Data: Wind.....	42
Figure 5. Fault Lines of the Region.....	44
Figure 6. Gemorphologic Units, Soil Capability, Agricultural Land Use.....	45
Figure 7. Main Geomorphologic Units in the Vicinity of Troia and the Formation of the Estuary/Flood Plain of the Scamander Brook During the Holocene.....	49
Figure 8. Late Neolithic – Early Bronze Age (B.C. 3000 – 2500).....	50
Figure 9. Filling Process of the Troian Bay.....	51
Figure 10. Geological Evolution and Geomorphologic Units of Troian Plain.....	52
Figure 11. Map of Piri Reis; Bozcaada and the entrance of the Dardanelles Strait.....	54
Figure 12. Dardanelles Strait in 1760.....	55
Figure 13. Kumkale Fortress.....	56
Figure 14. Seddülbahir Fortress.....	56
Figure 15. Entrance of Dardanelles in 1800.....	57
Figure 16. Geography During Schliemann’s Period.....	58
Figure 17. Layers of Troia.....	62
Figure 18. Archaeological Settlements of Troad.....	63

Figure 19. Preservation Sites.....	64
Figure 20. Çanakkale Coastal Area Master Plan.....	74
Figure 21. Legal Constraints and Anthropogenic Pressures.....	75
Figure 22. Troia Historical National Park Long Term Development Plan.....	77
Figure 23. The Planning Process of Management.....	81
Figure 24. The Concept 'Cultural Landscape Care' as a Circle of Discussions.....	88
Figure 25. Proposed National Park Boundary of the Urban Design Studio.....	93

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The term landscape and landscape archaeology has become increasingly popular in the last twenty years, and so its meaning has become quite complex. However, in Turkey we can say that it has been neglected; emphasis has been placed on art history and cultural historical approaches. Even when regional approaches to archaeology gained momentum during the 1970s, emphasis continued to be upon either settlement patterns or the physical landscape. (Wilkinson, 2003)

One of the aims of this thesis is to define the concept and its development, main issues, types and dynamics. Then it tries to describe and analyze the archaeological landscape of the Troad Region by use of key landscape types, dynamics, and approaches in the context of prevailing social, economic, and physical environments. We can see that this landscape can be recognized from its characteristic signatures that comprise arrangements of features such as field boundaries, artefact scatters, archaeological settlement sites, roads, canals, temples, and inscriptions. In turn the landscape itself changes through time as social, economic, political, social, and environmental circumstances vary to include a complex range of interaction between human factor and the environment.

However, there are some risks, because such studies can become so vague or indeed so vacuous that their only advantage is that there is room enough for all. "The current diversity of landscape approaches is now too great to be encompassed in one definition or approach. "(Stoddart and Zubrow 1999:688) So, no attempt is made here to be comprehensive. Rather, this is a preliminary attempt to demonstrate the richness and complexity of the Troad landscape and to provide some insights into its development. Troad itself has also many studies throughout the years; so, this thesis also

classifies these studies according to landscape archaeology issues discussed in the study. To do so, it reveals the importance of archaeological landscape role in the formation of 'identity'.

.

CHAPTER II

LANDSCAPE ARCHAEOLOGY

2.1. Why It Is Necessary to Study the Landscape Archaeology

Before defining the 'landscape archaeology' concept, it is appropriate to state its importance for the researchers and professionals from different disciplines.

First of all, it provides depository records of environmental change and contributes fundamental data concerning transformations of the earth's land surface. (Wilkinson, 2003:4) In our case, it reminds us to consider all of the environmental changes and transformations including geological, geomorphological, ecological, etc. changes of the Troad Region it had throughout centuries.

Secondly, *landscape* provides the economic infrastructure and support system for settlements and society. (Wilkinson, 2003:4) Thus, knowing the land use pattern of the area and economic usage of the land itself today and in the past, gives us the opportunity to understand settlements and society better on that manner.

Thirdly, *landscapes* provide evidence for long – term changes in settlement, economic patterning, and features that relate to social or religious changes. In addition, landscape provides a fundamental context for features such as religious monuments or many inscriptions, monumental or informal. (Wilkinson, 2003:4)

It also provides people's lives throughout history and therefore shapes their perceptions and way of life. (Wilkinson, 2003:4)

Overall, landscape archaeology provides evidence for long term human activity beyond the actual living areas themselves. (Wilkinson, 2003:4) So, it can be concluded that, studying archaeologies of landscapes makes us consider the area we focus in a wider perspective and integrates the works of people from different disciplines. Such a grasp obviously will lead to a better understanding of the 'identity' of the area, the threats it faced with, and the opportunities it has to conserve and interpret its constructed and conceptualized features and strengthen its identity.

2.2. Definitions and Different Approaches to Landscape Archaeology

Landscape archaeology is concerned and perceived in different ways by many researchers. There is substantial amount of literature dealing with the subject. (e.g. Ashmore and Knapp, 1999; Bernardi, 1992; Gillings *et al.*, 1999; Leveau *et al.* 1999; Lock and Stancic, 1995; Tilley, 1994; Ucko and Layton, 1999; Wagstaff, 1987) Thus, there is not just one simple explanation on what landscape archaeology is or how we can make use of it. As Stoddart and Zubrow have mentioned "the current diversity of landscape approaches is now too great to be encompassed in one definition or approach." (1999:688)

There are different understandings of the term itself. Generally speaking, British and European scholars concentrate on the visual, physical landscapes, while the North American researchers expand the meaning of "landscape" and "landscape archaeology" to include conceptual and idealized landscapes. (Grzymiski, 2004:11)

In a comparatively simple explanation, we can define *landscape archaeology* as;

(.....) the investigation of the long-term relationship between people and their environment at a regional scale. Such an approach must inevitably be multidisciplinary. (Barker, 1992:265)¹

¹ <http://archeologiamedievale.unisi.it/NewPages/COLLANE/TESTIQDS/paesaggio/08.rtf>

As Ashmore and Knapp emphasize, *landscape* everywhere in the world is a **construct of human beings**. It might be through human ascription to it of mythological creation, or through physical actions by the human themselves. (1999:1). However, landscape also must be seen as both actively influencing the both of the inhabitants as well as being, in turn, influenced by the activities of those inhabitants. (Wilkinson, 2003:6) So, it has a two sided affect within the concept itself. So, it is both shapes and shaped by the human experience.

From a wider aspect, scholars define landscape archaeology as;

“Through field surveys, documentary study, and cartographic analysis, as well as selective excavation, it has proved possible to prize apart the different phases of a landscape’s development the end product of this kind of analysis is ‘a history of things that have been done to the land’ which often seems quite remote from the past human lives that were lived in these places.” (Thomas, 2001:165, cited in Grzymiski, 2004:11-12)

“Landscape archaeology studies the way people of the past shaped the land around them, consciously or unconsciously. In the most extreme, shaping the environment might mean moving earth, but it also involves gardens and pathways and buildings. Landscape archaeology could almost be described as a more holistic form of archaeological study than site-specific archaeology; and it often includes GIS mapping of the "anthropogenic" or human-built environment. “²

“The study of individual features including settlements seen as single components within the broader perspective of the patterning of human activity over a wide area. It is the recovery of the story of an area of countryside using all possible techniques - surface scatters, field and other boundaries, standing buildings, as well as excavation. This approach within archaeology emphasizes examination of the complete landscape, focusing on dispersed features and on areas between and surrounding traditional sites as well as on the sites themselves.”³

In minimalist terms, a landscape is the backdrop against which archaeological remains are plotted. From economic and political perspectives, landscapes provide resources, refuge and risks that both

² http://archaeology.about.com/library/glossary/bldef_landscape.htm

³ <http://www.reference-wordsmith.com/cgi-bin/lookup.cgi?exact=1&terms=landscape>

impel and impact on human actions and situations. Today, however the most prominent notions of landscape is an entity that exists by virtue of its being perceived, experienced, and contextualized by people. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:1)

Landscape is also seen as a cultural phenomenon. So, it may be considered as a cultural and conceptual entity which is a set of relationships between people and places and the impact these relationships had on the social, political, cultural, and indeed the daily lives of people. This kind of landscape archaeology doesn't treat the environment as the passive backdrop of archaeological studies, usually presented as a "geographical introduction" to the traditional culture historical works. (Grzymiski, 2004:12) It was the geographers who became involved with studying the meaningful constitution of landscape.

The American geographer Carl Sauer (1925) first formulated the concept of a "cultural" landscape as fashioned from the "natural" landscape. Human geographers now seek the meaning in the landscape as a "repository of human striving" (Tuan 1971:184), and postmodernist perspectives visualize the landscape as a "cultural image" whose verbal or written representations provide images, or "texts" of its meaning, or "reading". Prominent among these studies are phenomenological approaches and linguistic perspectives, emphasizing "landscape" as constituted by humans' dwelling in it, a set potentials instantiated by human choice and action. Landscape is a "process" yielding a foregrounded, everyday social life from a background range of potential social existence. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:3)

Landscape is an "unstable" concept moving to and from along a natural - cultural continuum (Tilley,1994:37)⁴ and Ashmore and Knapp claim that the concept of space and place or other binary equivalencies cannot define, alone or collectively the landscape because the relevance and relationships of such pairs derive from specific historical or cultural contexts. (1999:6) Stressing the interrelationships among people and traces, places and features, in space and through time is necessary and important for

⁴ Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:6

emphasizing the organic or functional relation between parts and the whole of the landscape perspective.

(.....) landscape is a syncretic field. The space of landscape is at once cultural and natural, connecting values, modes of perception and representation, experiences, artefacts, histories, natural histories, dreams, identities, narratives, memories in networks of cultural ecology. (.....) landscape is a multitemporal and complicated, folded cultural topology. (Shanks, 2001: 293, cited in Grzymiski, 2004:12)

Landscape is thus the entire surface over which people moved and within which they congregated. That surface was given meaning as people acted upon the world within the context of the various demands and obligations which acted upon them. Such actions took place within a certain tempo and at certain locales. Thus landscapes, its form constructed from natural and artificial features, became a culturally meaningful resource through its routine occupancy. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:7)⁵

As a result, landscape has some artistic and sociosymbolic dimension beside its geographical and ecological meanings. In this context the term “**sacred landscapes**” refers to man-made structures such as temples and sacred districts or the natural features such as sacred groves, caves, or mountains. It highlights non-economic perspectives on human-land relations. Meaning in a landscape is not directly related to the material, archaeologically detectible ways, since it has a social meaning. Thus it is important to define the potential distinctions among conceptual, constructed and ideational qualities of past landscapes. If we turn our attention to landscape as “scenery” we can study the depiction and meaning of landscapes, or natural features in art.

Ideational aspects of landscapes do not simply constitute ritual and religion, and in much a quoted phrase, Simon Schama (1995) has asserted that “landscape is the work of the mind. Its scenery is built up as much from strata of memory as from layers of rock.” (Wilkinson 2003:6)

⁵ This definition belong to John Barret (1991:8)

Social meaning of space as place mandates examination of what Western scholars often classify as 'natural' places of significance, such as caves, mountain peaks, woods, rivers and springs, or even physically 'empty' spaces. Ascribing significance to a specific configuration of natural or geographic features is never self-evident but rather culturally determined. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:2)

This may lead us to quite disparate investigations such as, for example, the study of ancient fauna or the study of the belief system.

Robert Johnston refuses to distinguish between real and perceived landscapes and maintains that there is still no answer to what landscape is; it is still a very much a case of 'what it can be'. Landscape is in the broader sense, "contextual". All these definitions offer clearly divergent perspectives, all recognise or imply the human, social nature of landscape. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:7)

So, all these various definitions of landscape show that the concept is quite complex and that the word has different meanings, depending on the scholars' background and interests. It is a holistic term which links the artefacts and the ecofacts to a specific place and deals with issues of interest not only to historians, art historians, anthropologists and prehistorians, but also geographers, sociologists, demographers, urban planners, folklorists and others. (Grzymalski, 2004:12; Ashmore and Knapp 1999:3) They all have engaged concepts of memory, continuity, discontinuity and transformation. Such an approach must inevitably be multi-disciplinary, using a combination of both the human and natural sciences.

2.2.1. Archaeological Point of View

Archaeologists studied the landscapes as something that not only **shapes** but **shaped by human experience**. One of the archaeological definition of landscape archaeology is "the material manifestation of the relation between humans and the environment." (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:6)⁶

⁶ Definition belongs to Carole Crumley 1994: 6

Previously they tended to see the human landscape mainly in terms of demography, social interaction, economic resources and risks. So they focused on topography, technology, resources and land use – on what people did to the land and how it aided or constrained them; rather than what they thought or felt about it. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:7)

Tilley studies landscape as experience, and focuses on monuments rather than ephemeral traces of human activity. In the same respect, Bender deals with more structures and modern day urban centers than with archaeological space and place. Monuments like "sites" more generally make up a real but very limited part of the landscape. However significant a role they played in a community's ceremonial or public life, a more nuanced analysis requires more comprehensive understanding of the total landscape. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:4)

There is also a concept called 'settlement archaeology' showing that archaeology has traditionally incorporated attention to space and landscape. The terms like siteless archaeology, off-site archaeology and distributional archaeology also falls under the landscape archaeology. These approaches facilitate the study of diffuse human remains – such as field systems, farms, industrial sites, roads and the generally more ephemeral traces of nonsedentary peoples.- which show that how complicated the people's interactions with the land can be. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:2)

2.3. Two Different Classification of Approaches to Landscape Archaeology

2.3.1. Wilkinson's Classification

As it may be understood from the definitions above, there are different approaches to landscape archaeology according to the scholars' background and interest. This situation led to theoretical development in the concept itself

through a number of stages. At risk of oversimplification, Wilkinson gives three broad strands of the landscape archaeology as follows (2003:5):

- The cultural - historical approach, or the school of landscape history
- Processual approaches: Archaeological survey, off site and quantitative studies, catchment analysis, settlement archaeology, and various ecosystem approaches.
- Post – processual approaches to phenomenological, ideational, and symbolic/religious landscape.

2.3.1.1. The Cultural – Historical Approach

As Wilkinson cited, this is well presented by the British school of landscape history, which draws on historical documents, archaeology and the landscape itself. (2003:4) In that respect, Cyril Fox's book *Archaeology of the Cambridge Region* (1923) brings geographical perspective to the settlement, rather than artefact based or antiquarian and site – based approach, and set the stage for the development of English landscape archaeology. The fields of landscape history and historical geography gained more significance in this approach through the study of field patterns, place names and historical sources.

The landscape – history approach provides more data on medieval and post medieval than for the prehistoric periods. So, this kind of approach can result in a rather slender prehistoric record unless it seeks out areas that are rich in prehistoric remains. (Wilkinson 2003:5)

The fine reconstructions of Ottoman land use and settlement of Göyünç is showed as good example of this approach.

2.3.1.2. The Processual Approach

This approach includes much more “scientific” methodology which incorporates geological and ecological variables into the investigation of past societies. The environment and ecology as well as factors such as population pressure can be seen to drive research. The processual school follows the methodological and theoretical approaches of the 1970s “New Archaeology” with a resultant emphasis on environmental reconstructions as well as several techniques of sample survey. The processual school of landscape archaeology started to gain an enhanced definition with the introduction of the concept of the continuous landscapes which developed during the 1970s. As a result of intensive archaeological surveys in many parts of the world archaeological features form an almost continuous spread across the terrain. However, there is always a risk of tending to lose track of the broader sweep of history for the practitioners focusing on the small areas in minute detail, as emphasis is on the recovery of the more and more data. (Wilkinson 2003:5)

2.3.1.3. The Post – Processual Approach

This school has emphasis on the purity of the space, the use of subsistence models based upon the economically rational individual, and environmental constitution. Subjective elements of the landscape such as memory, power, identity, human agency, or ritual are considered of fundamental importance. During and since the 1980s, a phenomenological school of landscape archaeology has developed and achieved, particularly in parts of Europe and increasingly in the United States. (Wilkinson, 2003:5)

In some cases, processual and post processual schools examine different aspects of the landscape. So, that whereas processual landscape archaeologists deal with settlement pattern, land use, environment, and subsistence, post processual approaches focus more on ideational landscapes and subjects such as ritual, power or identity. This said, however, when dealing with the same landscape, the two fields will usually have divergent approaches and results. (Wilkinson, 2003:5)

It can be considered as a fact that, an integrated approach is really essential if we are really to understand landscape development.

2.3.2. Preucel and Hodder's Classification

Rather than seeing developmental stages such as cultural historical, processual, and so on Preucel and Hodder (1996) perceive four different approaches to landscape and culture that entail gradation from landscape as a natural towards landscape as a cultural entity. These stages, to some degree, also incorporate a change from a regional scale (natural approach) to those that are grounded in the individual. The four approaches are: (Wilkinson 2003:6)

- Landscape as environment: That entails landscape reconstructions and palaeoeconomies. (A school of archaeological thought developed in the 1960s by Eric Higgs, Eric and his colleagues based in Cambridge which focused on the long-term determinants of human behaviour resulting from the relationships between people and their environment: 'the study of man's roles in the prehistoric ecosystems of which he was a member', as Higgs and his colleague Michael Jarman themselves put it.)⁷
- Landscape as a system: That refers to the need to place sites within a pattern of off-site and settlement based activities. (off – site activity means, Taking place or located away from the site, as of a particular activity)⁸
- Landscape as power: That treats a landscape that is ideologically manipulated. For example, studies of the Neo – Assyrian kings exemplify this approach because of their attempts to conquer and settle a vast territorial empire.

⁷ <http://www.answers.com/topic/palaeoeconomy>

⁸ www.answers.com/topic/off-site

- Landscape as experience: That takes into account the degree to which the landscape was perceived by the original inhabitants and was imbued with meaning.

2.3.3. An Integrated Approach to Archaeological Landscapes

Approaches to landscape archaeology appear to be little to unite the field except the term landscape itself. Although processual archaeologists often appeal for the need for a scientific approach to landscape recording, one major advantage of the landscape archaeology that it does and should contain both cultural and physical components. Thus it should truly be an integrated discipline.

In the following parts of the thesis, emphasis is upon the development of the cultural landscape and its features in the light of the physical, cultural, and historical context. It will be evident that geography and the physical landscape have a considerable influence on landscape development in every stage.

2.4. Some Basic Issues of Landscape Archaeology

2.4.1. Landscape as Palimpsest (multi – layered feature)

Most “cultural landscapes” has different levels of preservation and loss of individual features through time. This resulted in a wide range of features in any given landscape from different periods. Therefore there is a little chance of achieving any form of total landscape archaeology. Thus as Wilkinson put that, (2003:7) the notion of **landscape as palimpsest** (Stoddart and Zubrow 1999) is fundamental. This deals with the progressive superposition of one landscape to another and sometimes the selective removal of parts of the earlier landscapes by later landscapes. Each generation uses a property or feature, changes it, adapts it to its new needs and demands, and then

passes it on to the next generation. As a result, the inherited landscape will contain a mix of features of different dates.

2.4.2. Signature Landscapes

It refers to those landscapes that are sufficiently physically etched into the land to remain in some way to the present day. In reality, however, there are many landscapes in existence: some are lightly etched to the point of being invisible, whereas others are heavily etched and are therefore visible to the naked eye. We are therefore only able to see part of the ancient landscape, for example, either those parts that were imposed by the heavy weight of imperial power or alternatively those that persisted for a sufficient length of time to leave a permanent record. This leads to the simple principle that a feature will remain in the landscape either there is a force or process that is strong enough to remove it. Therefore, in the landscape, the powerful hand of emperors or caliphs or the continuous movement of numerous individuals can leave a conspicuous imprint. Furthermore, if a feature is heavily etched into the landscape, it may well be perpetuated through long periods of subsequent use, although again this depends of the nature of the landscape or social system that follows. In some cases, landscape features can remain in the landscape, and their very persistence can dictate subsequent use of the land. This “historical path dependence” is illustrated by roads that can frequently attract future phases of settlement even though alternative, more appropriate settlement locations may be available. (McGlade 1997:477, cited in Wilkinson 2003:8)

2.4.3. Persistent Landscapes

A brief study of landscape record of any region will indicate that certain areas are used more (or at least for different purposes) than others. Persistent Places can therefore be defined as “places that were repeatedly used during long – term occupations of regions.” (Schlanger 1992:97) Either these can be

zones such as valley – bottom lands that have unique qualities for particular activities, or they can be smaller, more spatially defined places such as springs or unique topographic situations. Even though persistent places may not attract permanent settlement, they may attract long term episodic use. For example; for the Bronze Age of the Near East, this concept refers to alluvial lowlands, as opposed to fringing uplands of highlands. Notwithstanding the above, fertile lowlands should not necessarily be equated with cultivation, because, such areas also provide valuable pastoral zones with land use and landscapes switching back and forth between cultivation and pasture. Conversely, the problem of “invisible” (or nearly so) occupations of landscape becomes significant when we must deal with the record of the remains of pastoral / nomadic communities (Wilkinson 2003:7-8)

2.4.5. Landscape taphonomy⁹

It deals with the processes by which elements of the landscape become selectively removed by both physical and cultural processes, thereby leaving us with a biased and misleading record of earlier landscapes. When assessing the overall development of the landscape, it is therefore necessary to conduct a three – stage investigation.

First, we must determine to what degree parts of the landscape may have been lost, or obscured as a result of physical transformations. (Schiffer’s n-transforms: Schiffer 1987, cited in Wilkinson 2003:8). Second, cultural processes, which might have resulted in the selective loss of landscape features (c-transforms: e.g., the robbing of stones from previous field walls to build a dam) must be taken into account. Only after these two levels of analysis have been conducted we can move to the third stage, namely examining the influence of social, political, and economic factors on landscape formation. Such analysis must not be seen as a simple

⁹ Taphonomy means “ the study of the fate of the remains of organisms after they die, especially the study of fossilization”
(<http://www.seslisozluk.com/?word=taphonomy&sbT=Search&ssQBy>)

progression from one stage to another, because each process can also feed back into the other stages, thereby causing further complications.

Wilkinson gives a concrete example to illustrate this third stage: (2003:8)

Social and political factors do not operate in isolation, but they can themselves contribute to the development of the physical landscape. For example, the deliberate act of diverting a river either to thwart an adversary in battle or to deprive an enemy community of essential water can then result in a complete change in the river channel pattern and perhaps even the hydrology, which itself can further obscure or expunge the archaeological record.

2.5. Landscape Dynamics

As Wilkinson summarized (2003: 8-9) Feinman (1999:685) provides three tenets central to the landscape approach.

- Entails a dedicated effort to examine the physical environment using a diverse range of natural science techniques, but with explicit social science questions guiding the research;
- Recognizes human – environment interactions as historically contingent, dynamic, and accretionary, shaped by distinct cultural perceptions and past human actions; and
- Includes the realization that human environments are in themselves partly products or constructions of dynamic interactions with human behaviour.

Wilkinson interprets these tenets as an attempt to guard against an unduly environmentally deterministic approach to the landscape, but by raising the “environmental determinism” he thinks there is an unwitting tendency to understate the significance of natural events. In reality in cases such as extreme climatic event, the environment does have a major impact that may have determined the fate of vulnerable communities.

In contrast to an environmentally driven approach, the relevance of different cultural landscape signatures is evident in settlement ecology. The importance of culture is particularly apparent in the ways in which different communities or ethnic groups harness the productive capacity of the land.

Consequently, a switch from one land-use /settlement system to a contrasting one may take place simply when a new community acquires land from another. Thus, evidence for a marked change in the archaeological landscape record does not necessarily imply that there has been a change in either the environment or the economy.

Recent discussions on landscape archaeology focus on the dynamic nature of landscape development. The need to view landscapes as the product of long-term social – natural co-evaluation is argued by McGlade (1997:460) who sees landscapes as being nonlinear dynamical systems that result in occasional abrupt transitions between different stages of landscape development. Known as **complex adaptive systems**, such systems are not complex simply because they embody many components or behavioural rules but because of the nature of the global response of the system. **Complex adaptive systems** exhibit self organization, which is a process in which the pattern at the global level of a system emerges solely from interactions among the lower level components of that system. (Camazine et al. 2001:8, cited in Wilkinson, 2003: 9) This process contrasts with pattern formation in which order is imposed from above in the form of some sort of blueprint. (Camazine et al. 2001: 12 cited in Wilkinson, 2003: 9) Both concepts are applicable to the organization of the landscape some organically evolved landscapes could well be evidence for self organization, whereas many major irrigation systems show the hand of human design and internationality. (Wilkinson, 2003: 9)

2.6. History and the Development of the Concept Landscape Archaeology

The term landscape has become increasingly popular in the last twenty years, and Landscape archaeology has a long and distinguished history in Western Europe for much of the twentieth century.

The development of different landscapes is contingent upon both local ecology and social or cultural factors. Antecedent conditions are especially important to landscape history because very few landscapes developed upon entirely virgin terrain. Moreover, landscape development also entails interactions between various driving and feedback mechanisms such as demographic growth, climatic fluctuations, human – induced degradation of the landscape, and a wide range of social, historical, and political factors. Finally change plays its hand in the development of settlement and landscapes, and it is crucial to allow for occasional “surprise” events.

Grzymiski, (2004:12) describes the development of the concept **landscape** from ‘**territory**’ and ‘**region**’ as follows:

Territory is usually defined as a geographical area representing a political, administrative or natural unit. It is the concept of **space** that is the key element. In terms of archaeological research this spatial aspect has a long and distinguished history. It is perhaps best known from the British archaeological tradition where John Aubrey (b.1626) is seen as the founder of field archaeology meant as surficial, regional study, as opposed to excavations. Aubrey’s unpublished *Monumental Britannica* held in the Bodleian Library provided the detailed description of ancient sites in Britain and attempted at the reconstruction of past environments (Ashbee, 1972, p. 47). This British tradition of regional and spatial studies involving the nondestructive field surveys received a major boost through the novel approaches of O.G.S. Crawford who combined the purpose-made air photography with actual fieldwork (Ashbee, 1972, pp. 61–62).

The regional-scale research was carried out in two different, but related, ways: by means of spatial studies (**spatial archaeology**) and as **regional (or landscape) archaeology**. The former, whose best known proponent was David Clarke (Clarke, 1977), was concerned predominantly with the use of spatial information in archaeology in general. This ranged from a spatial analysis on the microlevel, beginning with an individual structure such as a house or even a room, all the way to the macroscale involving urban landscape and regional study. A classic work involving this type of spatial analysis, drawing both on the British tradition and the American interest in settlement patterns, was Kent Flannery’s *The Early Mesoamerican Village* (Flannery, 1976). This kind of research was also heavily influenced by the New Archaeology and its emphasis on sampling techniques and statistical studies.

The second line of research, namely the **regional** study, was more oriented towards empirical analysis. Here the emphasis was placed on regional survey, extensive fieldwalking, study of the historical geography and the natural environment. From among many practitioners of this type of archaeology, a group of researchers from the University of Leicester became most influential and Graeme Barker, in particular, became the best known proponent of this approach, perhaps because of his many publications and the fact that he worked not only in Britain but also in Libya and Italy. Clarke, Flannery and Barker were, in turn, strongly influenced by Vita-Finzi and Higgs's concept of the Site Catchment Analysis (SCA) (Vita-Finzi and Higgs, 1970). The site catchment analysis is primarily concerned with the study of the resource potential within a spatial context easily accessible to the occupants of the area. Higgs and Vita-Finzi's work was inspired by both the new developments in geography exemplified in Haggett's groundbreaking *Locational Analysis in Human Geography* (Haggett, 1965) and by Chisholm's work on settlements and land use (Chisholm, 1968), although the ultimate roots of SCA go back to von Thünen's law of diminishing returns with distance presented in his 1826 book *Der isolierte Staat* (see Hodges, 1987, p. 119; Clarke, 1977, pp. 21–22).

In the 1990s these various types of territorial and spacial studies evolved into what is most commonly termed "**landscape archaeology**," although the term "regional archaeology" is also occasionally used. Both the term and the technique are most commonly associated with Britain (d'Agostino, 1992, p. 19), although historically the application of geographical analysis to the study of ancient sites and regions was not, of course, a uniquely British phenomenon. One can be certain that practically everywhere in the world archaeologists have drawn evidence from the distribution maps, from the toponymical studies and from the study of the environment (e.g. Dufournet, 1978; Trawkowski, 1962). In fact, according to Roberts (1987, pp. 78–79), the roots of this kind of research lie in the 1895 study by the German scholar Meitzen (*Siedlung und Agrarwesen der Westgermanen und Ostgermanen, der Kelten, Römer, Finnen und Slawen*). Nevertheless, it is mainly through the work of the British and, in a somewhat different way, North American archaeologists that during the last decade "landscape archaeology" became perhaps the most interesting new development in archaeological theory and practice. It can be seen as a further development and a replacement of the study of settlement patterns, historical geography, regional and environmental archaeology, and cultural ecology.

Global Positioning System [GPS], Global Information System [GIS], geophysical survey instruments, etc. offer new possibilities for the collection and interpretation of data. This leads to the formation of new

paradigms, offers new approaches, and allows the development of new perspectives on archaeology.

2.7. Cultural Landscapes vs. Landscape Archaeology

Landscape archaeology is concerned with the analysis of the cultural landscape through time. This entails the recording and dating of cultural factors that remain as well as their interpretation in terms of social, economic, and environmental factors. It is assumed that the “natural landscapes” has been recognized consciously or subconsciously for a variety of religious, economic, social, political, environmental, or symbolic purposes. Evidence includes traces of earth moving activities, patterns or sequences of vegetation, traces of fields or gardens, settlements, and various types of land-use practices. (Metheny 1996:384, cited in Wilkinson, 2003:4)

Landscape archaeology attempts to describe, interpret, and understand the development of the cultural features that occur on the surface of the Earth. This includes both human settlements as well as the land between and beyond them.

In some part of the thesis the focus is on the cultural landscape and how it relates to the natural environment, particularly how the cultural and environmental spheres interact. Because landscape archaeology addresses both the cultural and the physical record over large geographical areas, landscape archaeology has the potential to be truly unifying. Hereby the thesis attempt to achieve an integrated study of landscapes in which ecological, geographical, cultural, symbolic features of Troad landscape which treated to provide a broad and varied picture of cultural change through time.

2.7.1. What is Cultural Landscape?

Cultural landscapes reflect the interactions between people and their natural environment over space and time. Nature in this context is the counterpart to

human society; both are dynamic forces, shaping the landscapes.

A cultural landscape is a complex phenomenon with a tangible and intangible identity. The tangible components arises from ideas interactions which have an impact on the perceptions and shaping of a landscape, such as sacred beliefs closely linked to the landscape and the way it has been perceived over time. **Cultural landscapes mirror the cultures which created them.**

Sauer's (1925) classic definition is: "The cultural landscape is fashioned from a natural landscape by a culture group. Culture is the agent, the natural area the medium, the cultural landscape the result."

Many other definitions have been adumbrated over the last decade (collected in Aitchison, 1995; Fowler, 2000, 2001, cited in Wilkinson 2003). Parks Canada (2000) provides its own modern definition of a particular sort of cultural landscape, one extremely relevant to World Heritage in subject and close to the spirit of World Heritage itself:

An Aboriginal cultural landscape is a place valued by an Aboriginal group (or groups) because of their long and complex relationship with that land. It expresses their unity with the natural and spiritual environment. It embodies their traditional knowledge of spirits places, land uses, and ecology.

By recognizing 'cultural landscapes', we have, almost for the first time, given ourselves the opportunity to recognize places that may well look ordinary but that can fill out in our appreciation to become extraordinary; and an ability of some places to do that creates monuments to the faceless ones, the people who lived and died unrecorded except unconsciously and collectively by the landscape modified by their labours. A cultural landscape is a memorial to the unknown labourer (Fowler, 2001: 77, cited in Wilkinson 2003).

2.7.2. UNESCO's Point of View and Different Types of Landscape

UNESCO prefers to use the term 'Cultural Landscapes' as the covering term of the 'landscape archaeology' and its approaches.

As it is mentioned before there is no single unified approach is currently being applied to the landscape. However, the cultural resource manager or archaeological administrator must be able to deal with entire cultural landscapes rather than simply those parts that suit his or her mind set.

The definition of UNESCO provides some general guidelines by recognizing three basic landscapes as follows: (From Wilkinson 2003:7; Ashmore and Knapp 1999:9; Cleere 1995)

- "Clearly defined" landscapes that were "designed and created intentionally." These include gardens and parklands, often associated with religious or other monumental structures, and Cleere (1995:65) cites Versailles in France or the Garden Tomb of Humayun (India) as examples.
- "Organically evolved" landscapes began as a particular socio – economic, administrative or religious initiative which evolved subsequently in association with and response to the natural environment. Sub categories include *relict* (or *fossil*) archaeological landscapes such as mines or quarries. (e.g., the "Gold Rush" land of the USA or Australia) or ancient agricultural complexes and *continuing* landscapes such as cultivation terraces in Southeast Asia.
- Finally, "associative cultural" landscapes are identified by such features as sacred promontories, or "religious settlements in outstanding landscapes" Examples include Uluru / Ayers Rock, or Meteora and Mount Athos.

Although the UNESCO definition is useful, it is not universally accepted.

Ashmore and Knapp (1999) prefer (a) *Constructed*, (b) *conceptualized*, (c) *ideational landscapes*. They also suggest that landscape is essentially all of these things at all times: It is the arena in which and through which memory, identity, social order and transformation are constructed, played out, re-invented, and changed. (1999:9)

Item (b) more specifically refers to the features resulting from the action of forestry and agriculture shaping the land, while the third item is more linked to the intangible value created by man – nature relations. (M. Ahnoletti, 2006:xii cited in Wilkinson 2003:7)

In the landscape archaeology concept and the issues held in the thesis, emphasis is placed on landscapes that fall within mainly the second and third categories of the UNESCO definition.

2.7.2.1. Constructed Landscapes

In general, mobile human groups create their landscapes by projecting ideas and emotions onto the world as they find it - on trails, views, campsites or other special places. Sedentary people, on the other hand structure their landscapes more noticeable, physically constructing gardens, houses and villages on the land, often by the notable natural landmarks. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999: 9)

Contemporary beliefs, visions and myths can and often do lead to metaphorical and physical (re)construction of the archaeological record, and constructed landscapes are particularly susceptible to such “freezing” of meaning. That is modernization of landscapes often leads to truncation and impoverishment of their living embodiment of memory, breaking off their cultural biography. – The long interaction between people and their environment. In considering the relationship between archaeology as past discourse and archaeology as contemporary practice, Bender, Hamilton, and Tilley (1997) maintain that excavation inspires alternative interpretative

constructions that may be perpetuated (immortalized), transformed or abandoned. Archaeologists and heritage managers alike need to be aware that physical and verbal (re)constructions invoke assumptions about a particular site or region which may bear a little or no relationship to the “traditional” value placed on the land by the various native or aboriginal peoples who inhabit and utilize it. The pragmatics and realities that archaeologists must confront in this ongoing conflict between science and the arts, among humanism, cultural heritage and legislated regulation. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999: 11)

2.7.2.2. Conceptualized Landscapes

Landscapes offer a variety of images, which are interpreted and given meaning through localized social practices and experience. These conceptualized landscapes are mediated through and to some extent constitutive of social processes, which in turn are integral to their reproduction as concepts. (Morphy 1995: 197 cited in Ashmore and Knapp, 1999: 11)

This notion of conceptualized landscapes comes closest to UNESCO’s “associative cultural” landscapes. Such landscapes are characterized by powerful religious, artistic or other cultural meanings invested in natural features rather than in material culture or monuments, which are insignificant or absent. In fact, the first property inscribed on the World Heritage List as a cultural landscape was in the associative category the site of Tongariro in New Zealand, a mountain sacred for the Maoris but one where they are forbidden to venture. The most obvious examples of the conceptual landscapes are Buddhist cave temples and mountains (Barnes), Australian Aboriginal Dreaming Tracks (Taçon), and the known but often physically unmarked features of the Inka world (van de Guchte). (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999: 11)

2.7.2.3. Ideational Landscapes

Within archaeological context, the term 'Ideational' considered as simple equivalent of sacred and symbolic, or else – in a happy convergence of metaphor – has been equated with 'landscapes of the mind' (Bintlif 1996:250). An ideational landscape is both "imaginative" (in the sense of being a mental image of something) and emotional (in the sense of cultivating or eliciting some spiritual value or ideal). The term is also meant to elicit an insider's perspective, but archaeologists clearly impose ideational notions from the outside. "Ideational" should be regarded as distinct from "ideological" and is intended to be broader than "sacred" or "symbolic". Ideational landscapes may provide moral messages, recount mythic histories, and record genealogies, but we can't assume that they always or necessarily comprise the kind of unified, fully articulated doctrine commonly implied by the term "ideology". And concerning the "sacred" nature of landscapes Bender, Hamilton, and Tilley (1997:148) suggest that all societies centralize ritual in the reproduction of power and authority.

Every part of prehistoric landscape would have been mediated by peoples' ideas about their world, by their social identities, and by their cognitive understandings. (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999: 12-13)

2.7.3. Themes on Landscape

These are four closely interrelated themes in the current archaeological study of ideational, conceptual and constructed landscapes.

- Landscape as memory
- Landscape as identity
- Landscape as social order
- Landscape as transformation.

2.7.3.1. Landscape as Memory

Landscape is often regarded as the materialization of memory, fixing social and individual histories in space. Research in cognitive science suggests that human memory constructs rather than retrieves, and that the past originates from the elaboration of cultural memory, which is itself socially constituted. (Holtorf 1997:48-50 cited in Ashmore and Knapp, 1999, 13) The outcome of such a process maps mythic and moral principles for a society, reminders of triumphs and catastrophes in the social past. The most frequently cited embodiment of memory in land is the “Aboriginal Australians. In a more recently recognized example, Dietler (1998) examines three “Celtic” (Iron Age) hilltop settlements which in recent history have been converted into part of the collective memory and national identity of Modern France.

Landscapes are also commonly thought to embody the cosmos in miniature, wherein one’s own town, home and body occupy the symbolic center of the universe. Each society tends to characterize and conceptualize the landscape in its own way.

Memory stresses continuity in the landscape, often through re-use, reinterpretation or restoration, and reconstruction. Researches and heritage management seeks to reinscribe past meaning onto a present landscape by demonstrating its social, sacred, or ceremonial values. With or without tangible change in the physical reminders, meaning is reminded. Landscape as memory linked in this sense to the identity of its inhabitants. (Ashmore and Knapp,1999, 13)

2.7.3.2. Landscape as Identity

People recognize, inscribe, and collectively maintain certain places or regions in ritual, symbolic, or ceremonial terms; conversely, these places create and express sociocultural identity. Landscape provides a focus by which people engage with the world, and create and sustain a sense of their social identity. The genesis of contemporary cultural and political identity is

indirectly reflected in landscape. Even in societies reliant on strong oral traditions, landscape marking is often evident. Studies of rock art have helped to break down the distinction between an economic archaeology based on settlements and land use, and a social archaeology based on monuments and material culture. So, “some of the images associated with ceremonial centres also extended to natural places in the landscape.” (Ashmore and Knapp,1999)

2.7.3.3. Landscape as Social Order

Just as landscape maps memory and declares identity, it also offers a key to interpreting society. More than being a metaphor for human actions taking place at some independent level, the land itself, as socially constituted plays a fundamental role in the ordering of cultural relations. And landscape may become a key reference point for expressions of individual as well as group identity.

Social roles, relations and identities too, are mapped on the land as foreignness, chaos, and barbarism.

In constructing past landscapes, archaeologists must avoid imposing their own, often hierarchical notions of social order. Gender – and other social – distinctions do not always translate to spatial or landscape maps. (Ashmore and Knapp,1999)

2.7.3.4. Landscape as Transformation

In any society, individuals will, for their own reasons, locate themselves in different places, hold different conceptions of the world and their place within it, and make offering demands on that world: the result can be tension, contestation or transformation. The transformation of the landscape is most often linked interpretively with cyclical time, and with the perpetuation or change of the social order.

Landscapes embody time at different scales as well. Philosopher Edward Casey (1996:36) notes that, phenomenologically, “space and time come together in place”; since landscapes embody multiple times and as well as multiple places, they thereby materialize not only continuity and sequence, but potentially change and transformation as well. (cited in Ashmore and Knapp,1999:20)

Archaeologists tend to focus on the monuments when they were built and while they remained in active use, but the after life of monuments remains under-appreciated. We forget that seemingly abandoned monument is still part of an active landscape. Ancient sites, monuments and even entire landscapes may be transformed and re-used as people encounter and interact with particular places, as they recreate the past. Monument afterlife can have different sources and take different forms; even geological formations may have been understood as ancestral monuments, maintained and embellished by later generations living in the same place. Here, the constructed and conceptualized landscapes merge in a complicated way.

“To polarize nature and culture, perception and interpretation, is commonplace, but in fact hinders conceptualizing past landscapes. “ (Ashmore and Knapp,1999:20) The environment manifests itself as landscape only when people create and experience space as a complex of places. People’s sense of place, and their engagement with the world around them, are invariably dependent on their own social, cultural, and historical situations.

2.7.4. Historical Background of Linking Nature and Culture in Terms of UNESCO’s Perspective

"At least since the beginning of the industrial revolution in the first half of the nineteenth century, nature and culture was seen as the extreme opposites in the western thought. Nature was seen not as the counterpart of the culture

but above all as an enemy to be controlled and dominated, with the assistance of technology. Technological achievements were seen in the industrial nations as a way of protecting and insulating people from nature."(Droste, B. von, Plachter, H., Rössler, M.,1995: 15) The approach to the nature, which is still reflected in many scientific disciplines, was like something to be analyzed, used and altered as far as possible and controllable. Due to the political and socio-economic developments this approach was introduced to the other geo-cultural regions of the world and this world today is dominated by the priority placed on technological development, independent from natural conditions, the belief in progress promoted by the technological development; so, there was a disconnection and confrontation of nature and culture.

This thinking reached a peak in the early 1970's. As a response to that approach, a major environmental movement held in the same year and this was also the time of UNESCO established the International Convention for the Protection of the World's Cultural and Natural Heritage. However a substantive connection between nature and culture was not automatically implied by the World Heritage Convention. (Droste, B. von, Plachter, H., Rössler, M.,1995: 15)

It is said in the book that in implementing the World Heritage Convention, the World Heritage Committee tried to avoid the separation between nature and culture but despite this efforts the gap could not entirely be bridged. There was an evident distinction between art history and nature protection. "While art historians took single monuments as their main focus, the natural scientists did not recognize the immense cultural influences on nature." (Droste, B. von, Plachter, H., Rössler, M.,1995: 16) For natural scientists; nature modified by humans was beside to point to them, had a little value and was not recognized as a primary problem for conservation. Thus, they accepted the disconnection and contradiction between nature and culture. Furthermore in the context of Industrial development, nature was often seen

as "dangerous" and in nature protection humans are viewed as "a nuisance" (Droste, B. von, Plachter, H., Rössler, M., 1995: 16)

"While the value systems and strategies of cultural heritage and nature conservation have been often opposed to each other, both used a dualistic, static and conservative approach to protection. The aim is to preserve or reconstruct single, unique objects at some clearly defined phase of their existence. Single cultural objects are perceived independently of the cultural context and the landscape environment which they developed; natural areas are seen separated from their context, the surrounding biosphere, which includes people and their activities.

The management goals in both fields tend to enshrine particular historical stages; dynamic developments are rarely integrated into the management and the protection of the sites.

Over the recent years, rapidly changing economic and social systems have led to a new interest in the management of landscapes of all sorts, because of increased environmental concern. As properties, cultural landscapes have themselves come to be recognized as a separate category of sites, requiring different and innovative conservation and management concepts. Thoughts on the protection and development of the heritage have changed rapidly, both in cultural and natural sciences.

The recent definition of cultural landscapes by the World Heritage Committee has created increasingly awareness of cultural landscapes and led to a greater demand for recognition and protection of these landscapes. This has become a preoccupation at the international as well as the national level.

2.7.4.1. The World Heritage Committee and Landscape

UNESCO expressed an interest in and concern about landscape forty years ago (UNESCO, 1962). Certain themes to do with landscape can then be seen running consistently through the World Heritage Committee's deliberations from around 1980; most are still on its agenda (documented in

Fowler, 2003,). There are repeated cries, often more generally but specifically in relation to cultural landscapes, for definitions, guidelines, thematic studies; for regional and thematic frameworks for the application of the Convention; for a more balanced and representative World Heritage List, and for ways of achieving this; for better communications, management, tentative lists; for co-operation, in the regions, on the ground, and between the Advisory Bodies and other NGOs, not least the better to advise the Committee; and for more from the Secretariat. Cultural landscapes tend to become rather mixed up with Global Strategy issues in the 1990s and then with the revision of the Operational Guidelines (von Droste et al., 1999; UNESCO, 1999). But then most of the above issues have been mixed up with revision of the Guidelines, proposed and actual, throughout the twenty years since 1982.

Much of the Committee's earlier and consistent interest in cultural landscapes and their predecessors was expressed in the 1993 Action Plan for the Future (Cultural Landscapes) (given in full in Fowler, 2003, Appendix A). Major issues the Committee is still concerned with are specified there: difficulties with tentative lists; the need to help States Parties in several ways, and for better communication both with them and between them; the need positively to promote cultural landscapes both generally and among States Parties, not least by encouraging reassessment of existing inscribed sites in the light of the new type of property; and the need for guidelines in the management of cultural landscapes. Such issues keep appearing in publications and at World Heritage meetings (e.g. Cleere, 1995; Hajós, 1999; MacInnes, 1999; Mitchell and Buggiey, 2000).

CHAPTER III

TROAD AND ITS ARCHAEOLOGICAL LANDSCAPE

3.1. Location and Geography

Troia is situated in the northeast corner of Anatolia, the entrance to the straights of Dardanelli, on the Hisarlık Hill. On this hill, H. Schliemann believed the Homeric was hidden. From Neolithic times unto the present, Troia and its surroundings within the 'Troad' have retained great geopolitical significance. An unusual combination of winds and currents brought Troia wealth and power.

Today, Troad region can be considered within the Troia Historical National Park area. This area is located on the Biga Peninsula of the Marmara Region. Administratively it is a part of Çanakkale province in the northwest of Turkey. It is the western extension of the Biga Peninsula and incorporates the Gallipoli Peninsula and Dardanelles. The area has been of great importance from prehistoric times up until today because of its geopolitical location-**a meeting point of eastern and western cultures and the waterway that connects the Black Sea and Marmara with the Aegean, and Mediterranean.**

Troad region is archeologically, historically and naturally rich environment. Other well-known assets of the region in the broader context comprise Gallipoli Peninsula Historical National Park established in memory of the Gallipoli War on the north of Çanakkale Strait, Mount Ida (Seat of Zeus, very often mentioned in Iliad as affecting the course of the Trojan War) National Park and Manyas Bird National Park. (Figure 1-2.)

Troia Historical National Park is in a suitable location for national and international visitors. Beside tourism activity in the summer, both Troia and

Bird Paradise attract scientists and scholars as well as those interested in culture and history. It is also known that a substantial amount of visitors from the overseas convene in memory of the Gallipoli War, which is only two nautical miles. Moreover, historically there is a lot of parallelism between the two wars.

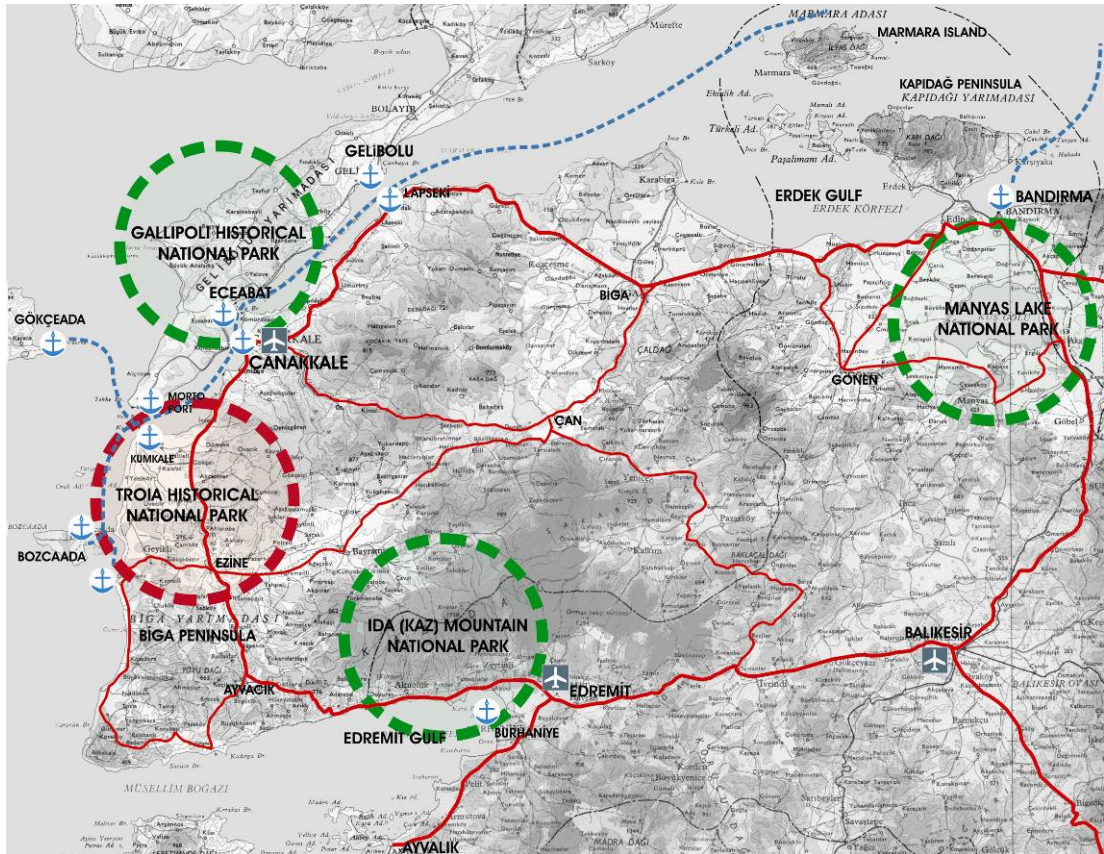


Figure 1. Location in the Region⁹

⁹ METU, Urban Design Studio, 2007

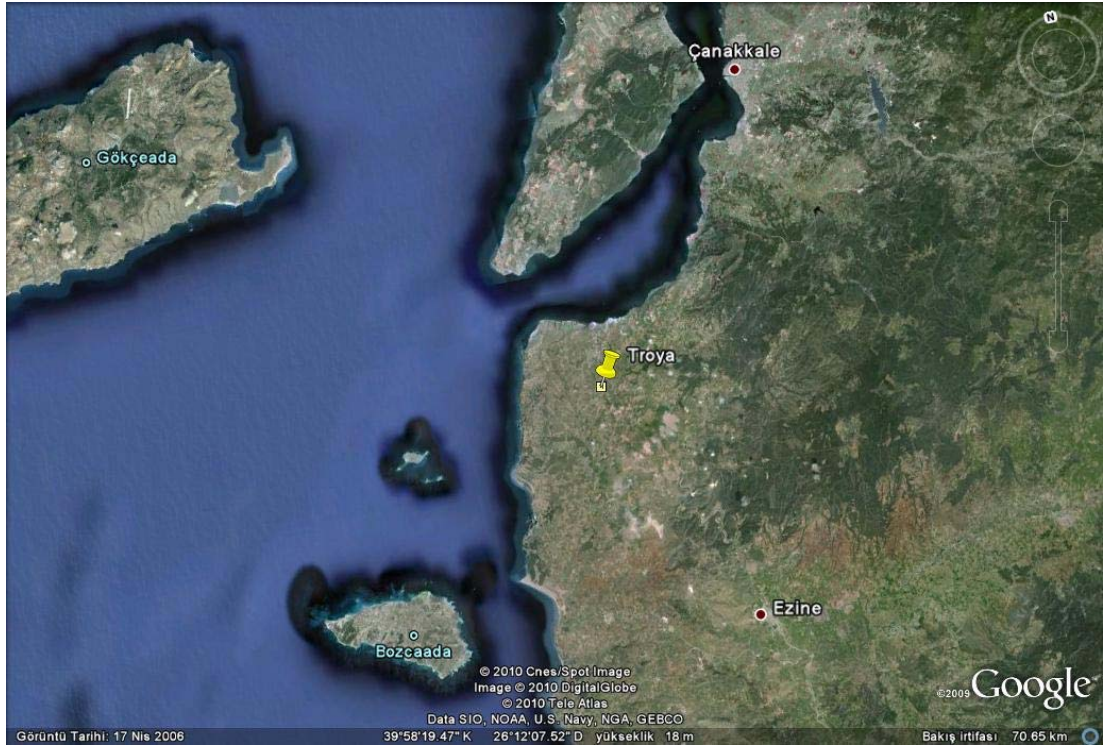


Figure 2. Satellite Image of the Region ¹⁰

3.2. Significance of the Troad

Troia and the Troad region have a great magnitude as means of many different aspects. First of all, Hisarlık is one of the places where “archaeology” began. It is also a place where pioneering experiments with new methods have been conducted. (M. Korfmann, Troia and Troad, 2003;1)¹¹

Then it is a place where it is believed that “Trojan War” actually happened. So, the region became immortalized thanks to Homeros, through the epic poems, the Iliad and Odyssey. It acts as a setting for a 10 year war between heroic Trojan and Spartan warriors, which are supported by divine beings. Although archaeologists have shown that the Iliad represents only one of the

¹⁰ <http://earth.google.com>

¹¹ Wagner, Pernicka, Uerpmann, 2003

nine cities of Troia, spread over 3000 years of history, the history of Troia is considered as the history of Homer and Western World.

Being historically on crossroads, the region has a long history of settlements. Some of the settlements date back to 6000 BC, having been occupied continuously from 3000 BC to the end of the second millennium. (Troia I-VII). Settlement there continued, with interruptions, until the Byzantine Era (Troia X) and thereafter was unoccupied. Troia became a rich city after 3000 BC due to the wind and currents in the Dardanelles which made it difficult to travel upstream. It was one of the most important cities in the Bronze Age trading network, in particular during the time of Troia II (c.2500 BC) and Troia VI (from c. 1600 BC).

Not only the site of Troia itself but also the surrounding terrain has played a prominent role in the cultural history of mankind.

3.3. Various Periods of its History

On Troia mound there are fortified settlements built one upon another. In the periods of Troia VI-VII (1700-1050), we can call it a citadel.

The excavations started in 1870 and were developed in various phases, the archaeological knowledge of the site and of the Troad was widely developed after Schliemann, thanks to the work of Dörpfeld, until 1894. With the permission given in 1988 after the break of 50 years, Carl W. Blegen and now Prof. Dr. Manfred Osman Korfmann continued the work with his team. After the loss of Korfmann in 2005, excavation works are now being executed by Ernst Pernicka and his team since then.

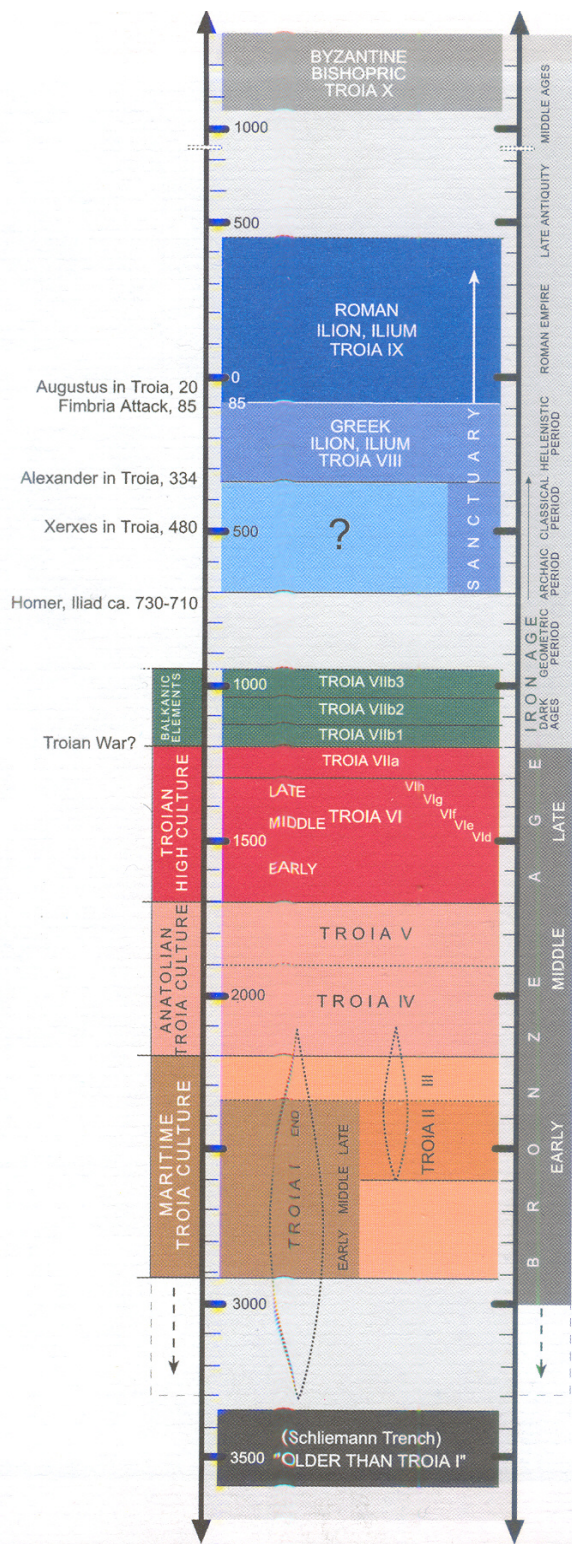


Figure 3. Chronology of Troia¹²

¹²Wagner, Pernicka, Uerpmann, 2003

3.4. Methodology used by Scholars for Archaeological Landscape Analysis of the Region

3.4.1. Techniques and Analysis

As it is known, different archaeological methodologies result in different kinds of archaeological data. According to Wilkinson (2003:33), landscape prospection falls into three basic stages: first the analysis of maps, aerial photographs, satellite images and other data sources prior to the fieldwork. Second is the recovery of data in the field using various forms of archaeological or geoarchaeological survey; ideally this part provide ground control for the first stage. The third stage entails the analysis of the samples taken in the field by various techniques such as geochemical analysis as well as the process of combining data collected in the field with that from the initial reconnaissance stage. Geographic Information Systems (GIS) have become fundamental tool for manipulating spatial data sets as well as the visualization of ideational landscapes and perception of the terrain.

In addition, however, it is vital for the landscape archaeologist to understand the process of landscape formation that may have been in operation in the chosen field area. Such, “taphonomic processes” do not necessarily provide the field archaeologist with any dramatic new discoveries, but they do make it possible for the field and remote – sensing records to be interpreted in a more meaningful way. (Wilkinson, 2003: 33)

3.4.2. Data Sources and Techniques

3.4.2.1. Data Recovered Before Fieldwork

Maps provide a fundamental data source for landscape analysis and should not be underestimated because they show numerous features of relevance to landscape archaeology. These include field terraces, mounds, ruins, water reservoirs, dams, and wells. In addition some place names, supply

information on earlier phases of settlement and water supply before one even sets foot in the field.

The availability of specialized project maps (such as maps for irrigation schemes) can supply detailed topographic information that, in turn, can help define mounded sites. The availability of maps in proper scales can help to define not only the settlements, but also quarry pits, ancient routes and canals. (Wilkinson, 2003:35)

Geographically corrected maps or satellite images provide a key base for plotting landscape data and can be used for georectifying less geographically precise aerial photographs or satellite images, can be warped onto a pre-existing map base. These two are also very important inputs for the analysis of the terrain and land use patterns. Most sites and landscape features such as fields, ancient roads, canals, etc. might be visible in the high quality satellite images. Emerging technique include radar images that generate a pulse, which is then received by radar antenna to construct an image. By detecting variations in surface roughness or by penetrating, for example dry sand, radar can provide an image of subsurface terrain. (Wilkinson, 2003)

3.4.3. Data Recovery by Fieldwork

3.4.3.1. Archaeological Site Survey

Archaeological survey, which aims to locate and analyze the distribution of ancient settlements, usually according to the period, supplies the basic data framework for the landscape archaeology of a region. Archaeological survey does not always supply information on the landscape features themselves, unless the survey is of the “siteless” variety that investigates both the sites as well as the land in between.

In recent years, archaeological landscape has been perceived as forming an almost continuous record, with off-site activity being represented by cultural

features such as quarries , roads, tracks, artefact scatters, irrigation systems, fields, wine or olive presses, and threshing floors.

To obtain robust off-site data, surveys should be designed to supply a continuous record of the landscape in the form of transects across the terrain, or there should be a sample between sites by means of sample squares. (Banning 2002)

With the advent of new GPS technology and geographically corrected satellite images, it is now possible to recognize and target features on images and employ the “go to” capability of the GPS to find precisely and visit key features. (Wilkinson, 2003:37)

3.4.3.2. Geochemical Prospection

Geochemical prospection provides a spatial record of human activity in the form of a fixed anthropogenic signal superimposed over that of the soil chemical environment. (Heron 2001:565) Soil samples are analyzed to provide a spatial patterning of chemical properties that yield a signature of both the original soil record as well as a signal of later human activities. Geochemical indicators can then be related to patterns of off-site artefacts to produce a composite interpretation of ancient activities in the region (Wilkinson 1990, Bintliff et al. 1992)

3.4.3.3. Geoarchaeology

Geoarchaeological studies form an essential part of landscape archaeology and enable landscape surveys to be placed within a dynamic physical context. Field surveys and application of earth science techniques allows the landscape record to be assessed in terms of natural transformation process.

By undertaking geoarchaeological studies simultaneously with archaeological surveys, it is possible to determine what proportion of sites and landscapes have been lost through erosion, whether features may have been buried by

sedimentation, or whether sites lie on relatively stable terrain. In addition geoarchaeological studies such as, soil micromorphology, particle size analysis, and soil profile description provide essential information on the development and dynamics of the landscape features such as buried land surfaces, infilled quarry pits and terraced fields. (Groenmanvan Waateringe and Robinson 1988, Miller and Gleason 1994)

Geoarchaeological techniques form a key element in the interpretation of many landscape features. Besides many other benefits, it can be used to assess the size, sorting and depositional environment of sediments transported along the beds of irrigation canals. (Wilkinson, 2003:40)

Geomorphological processes either can erode parts of the landscape away or can entomb landscape features beneath an obscuring blanket of sediment.

3.4.3.4. Geophysical Techniques

During the past 15 years geophysical prospection has been applied to settlement sites in Turkey with impressive results. Proven techniques includes resistivity survey, which measures the electrical resistance of the soil, magnetometry survey, which measures variations in the earth's magnetic field or the magnetic susceptibility of the subsurfaces; electromagnetic survey; ground penetrating radar; and seismic survey.

The combination of excavation with geophysical survey should provide a basic signature for a verified feature. (Wilkinson, 2003:40)

3.4.3.5. Landscape Taphonomy

Knowing the fact that cultural landscape had suffered progressive attrition of features through time, with some elements being added whereas some others were lost. Christopher Tylor's recognition of landscapes of destruction and survival in Britain (Taylor 1972) is seen as a landmark statement because this conceptual framework enabled archaeologists to take account of the likelihood of feature survival when assessing the landscape record. For

example, above the limit of cultivation in the uplands, there was an increased likelihood of landscape features or entire landscapes surviving whereas in the lowlands where processes of settlement and cultivation had endured over millennia, there was much greater chance of earlier landscapes being lost. (Wilkinson, 2003:41)

3.5. Troia and Troad Landscape Elements

The elements of the landscape discussed in this chapter are those features that form the fundamental components of the overall landscape. These elements (ancient settlements, roads, fields, geographic features, canals, and so on) when assembled together do not make the complete landscape, but they do enable us to start to recognize a structure for the landscape for certain periods.

Types of features that constitute the landscape can be subdivided into three basic classes: first, those that correspond to features that were created to satisfy the physical needs of the inhabitants; second those that were created to satisfy their spiritual needs; a third class consists of features or “natural places” that were used but not created, for spiritual, pleasure or elements of war purposes. (Wilkinson, 2003:47)

3.5.1. Present Landscape Characteristics and Environmental Context

3.5.1.1. Climate

The climate of the Troad Region and its environs is a cross-section between the Marmara and Aegean regions. While the Aegean and Mediterranean coasts have cool, rainy winters and hot, moderately dry summers with annual precipitation varying from 580 to 1,300 millimeters, in the Marmara region the climate is more moderate (winter 4°C and summer 27°C) which may well drop below zero. Because of its location receiving high amount of winds,

precipitation around the national park is low as compared to the Aegean and Marmara regions. This is an arid zone with scarce and vulnerable vegetation.

The most significant climatic element in the environs of Troia is the wind. The wind rose depicted for the region (Çanakkale) shows a continuous northeast direction frequency supported by a smaller amount of northerly winds. (Figure 4.) The southwest and southerly winds, as far as their frequency is concerned is considerably lower, however, their speeds are high. This character of winds has historically affected marine transportation along the Dardanelles (Çanakkale Strait). Until the use of inorganic energy in marine vessels, it has always been a difficult journey to move from the Aegean into the Marmara Sea. Under severe northeastern winds, the vessels had to wait in Beşik or Troian bays for winds from the southeast. This point is significant in the formation of Troia's economic life and survival.

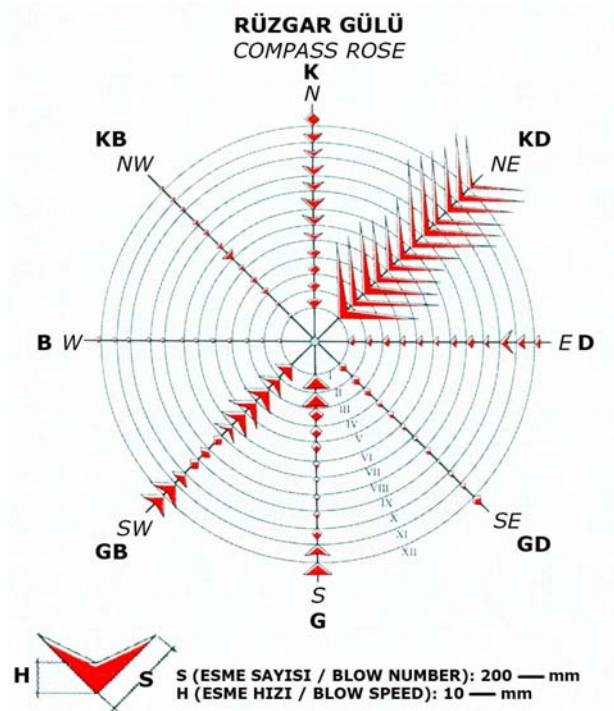


Figure 4. Climatic Data: Wind ¹³

¹³ METU, 1997; Gallipoli Peace Park Documents and Urban Design Studio Documents, 2007

3.5.1.2. Regional Geology

As it is mentioned before, Troia is located on the northwest edge of the larger geographic unit called Biga peninsula. On the southeast edge of the peninsula are the Kaz (Ida) Mountain, the seat of Zeus and the main source of Kara Menderes (Scamander) River

It is known that in the last period of the glacial age (Würm / 20-18 thousand years ago), the sea level was some 100 m. lower than it is today. Under those conditions, Marmara and Black Sea were lakes, and Istanbul and Çanakkale Straits were river valleys. Kara Menderes (Scamander) is a branch river draining its waters into Marmara. This is very visible in the drills made around Troia where 30-40 m. below present land surface there are gravel-sand alluvial layers (Kraft et al., 1980; cited in Kayan, 2005).

Towards the end of the glacial era, the sea level has rapidly ascended and the marine formation, which also caused the genesis of Troia, has penetrated inland to the environs of Pınarbaşı at the southern edge of today's plain (Kayan, 2005):

In the post-glacial era (Holocene), rapidly ascending sea level has first penetrated into the Çanakkale strait and advanced south into the land. Needless to say, when ascending, the sea has carried with it alluvial materials and deposited them as delta sediments at each level of its ascent... Approximately 7000 years ago, when the sea level was ascending rapidly, the shoreline at the mouth of Scamander has moved south, and covering the previous delta areas reached almost the present locality of Pınarbaşı.

Around 6000 years ago the ascent of sea level stabilized and reached its present level. In this period substantial amount of alluvium carried from Bayramiç-Ezine basin of Scamander, started to fill the bay with deposits; and this time the shoreline started to retreat northwards. The results of drills made, give clues that marshes covered extensive portions of land on the south of Troia (Kayan, 2005).

3.5.1.3. Seismicity

With reference to Long Term Development Plan studies, some 25 km south of Troia passes a fault rupture. The region in which Troia Historical National Park is standing stays in the highest risk earthquake zone in the earthquake map of Turkey enacted by Government decree (decision 8676) of 18 April 1999. (Figure 5)

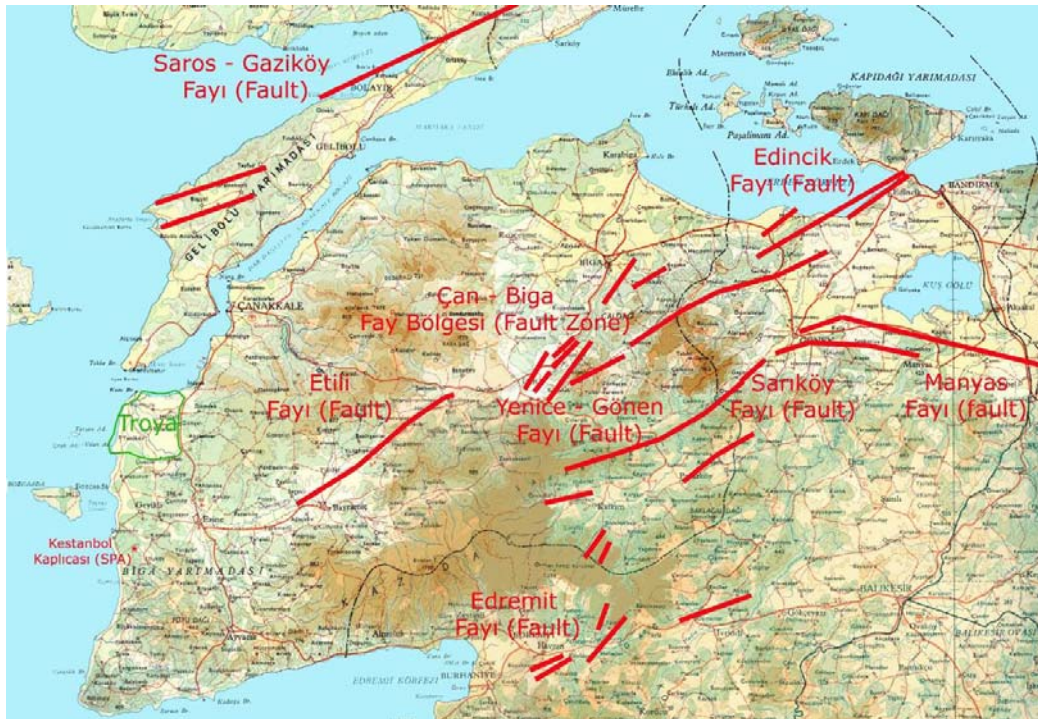


Figure 5. Fault lines of the Region¹⁴

3.5.1.4. Geomorphologic Units and Soils Types

The most significant element of the soil type in the area is the Scamander plain, which was once a piece of land, later becoming a part of the sea and than an alluvial plain again. The whole space of the national park found its present form around the plain, whereby the geomorphologic units and soil structure evolved in the same context.

In assessing the quality of soils, definitions made in the By-law pertaining to the Protection and Use of Agricultural Lands published in August 2001 issue

¹⁴ Urban Design Studio, 2007

of Official Gazette was used. Accordingly, those lands that do not fall under the categories of prairie, pasture, highlands, olive groves and forest are classified.

Grade I, II, III and IV lands are considered suitable for cultivated land, and grade V, VI and VII are considered suitable for uncultivated agricultural lands. Grade VIII lands are not suitable for agriculture. (Figure 6)

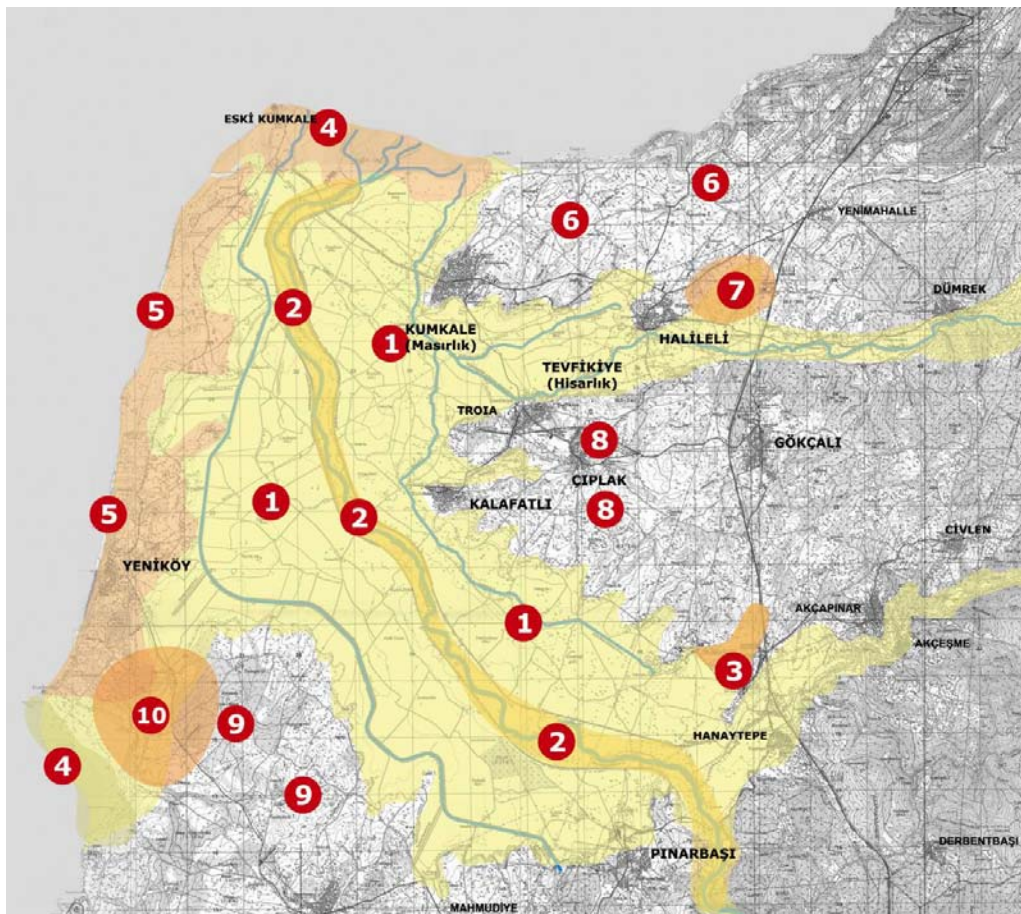


Figure 6. Gemorphologic Units, Soil Capability, Agricultural Land Use¹⁵

¹⁵ LTDP, 2002 cited in Urban Design Studio, 2007

Geomorphologic Unit	Soil Quality	Soil Type	Method of Agriculture	Type of Vegetation
1. Kara Menderes Plain	I, II, III	Alluvium	Dry and irrigated farming	Cereals
2. Kara Menderes Course	VIII	Colluviums	None	Hydrophytes, Trees and Shrubs
3. Kumtepe Farm	II, VI	Alluvium	Pasture	Pasture, Forestation
4. Kumkale and Beşik Beaches and Dunes	VIII	Alluvium	None	Dune plants
5. Yeniköy – Kumkale Ridge	II, III, IV, V	Rendzina	Dry farming	Cereals, Vineyards, Olive
6. Kumkale – Intepe Ridge	III, IV, VI	Rendzina	Dry farming	Cereals, Orchards, Heathers
7. Halileli West	II	Colluviums	Dry farming	Cereals
8. Gökçalı, Tefkiye, Çıplak and Kalafatlı Plateau	II, III, IV, VI	Rendzina	Dry farming	Cereals, Heathers, Frigana
9. Üvecik Plateau	II, III	Brown forest soil	Dry farming	Cereals, Oak-woods
10. Yeniköy – Üvecik	I	Alluvium	Heathers	Heathers
<p>Hydrophytes: Plants that have adapted to living in or on aquatic environments</p> <p>Frigana: Distorted forms of maquis.</p> <p>Rendzina: Dark, grayish-brown, humus-rich, thin soils with limited available water capacity.</p> <p>Brown forest soil: Available in temperate climates under deciduous trees, where leaves of trees dissolve and feed the soil.</p> <p>Colluviums: Younger soils deposited by sediments of rivers suitable for aquatic plants</p>				

Table 1. Geomorphologic Units, Soils and Vegetation

3.5.2. Strabo's Definition of Geology and Geomorphology of the Troad

According to Strabo's Geography, Book XIII:

From the mountain range of Ida in this region, according to Demetrius, two spurs extend to the sea, one straight to Rhoeteium and the other straight to Sigeium, forming together a semicircular line, and they end in the plain at the same distance from the sea as the present Ilium; this Ilium, accordingly, lies between the ends of the two spurs mentioned, whereas the old settlement lies between their beginnings; and, he adds, the spurs include both the Simoeisian Plain, through which the Simoeis runs, and the Scamandrian Plain, through which the Scamander flows. This is called the Troian Plain in the special sense of the term; and here it is that the poet represents most of the fights as taking place, for it is wider; and here it is that we see pointed out the places named by the poet Erineus, the tomb of Aesyetes, Batieia, and the monument of Ilius. The Scamander and Simoeis Rivers, after running near to Sigeium and Rhoeteium respectively, meet a little in front of the present Ilium, and then issue towards Sigeium and form Stomalimne, as it is called. The two plains above mentioned are separated from each other by a great neck of land which runs in a straight line between the aforesaid spurs, starting from the present Ilium, with which it is connected, and stretches as far as Cebrenia and, along with the spur's on either side, forms a complete letter. (<http://soltdm.com/sources/mss/strab/strab>).

As told by Strabo, the alluvial plains formed by Kara Menderes (Scamander), Kemer (Thymbrios) and Dümrek (Simoesis) rivers, and ridges running parallel to the Scamander plain on the west, and perpendicular ridges as extensions of lower plateaus on the east build up the geomorphology of the site. Troia was built on one of such ridges parallel to the Simoesis valley and perpendicular to the Scamander plain. In the contemporary era the geomorphology of the site is as follows:

Between the ridges on the east, the Simoesis valley's lower portion and its alluvial plain lies. Troia was located on the western tip of one of those eastern ridges on the south of the Simoesis valley. This ridge is approximately 20-30 m high and gradually ascends eastwards to heights of 100-120 m, to join higher plateaus. The northern slopes of Troia are faulty and steep, while the southern slopes incline moderately (Kayan, 2005).

Scamander River passes through the Araplar gorge. With the confluence of Thymbrios and Simoesis the hydrogeology of the area is structured. Other than the mentioned rivers, Kırkgözler spring west of Pınarbaşı and the spring near Taş Köprü (Stone Bridge), have historically been main sources of potable water.

As pointed out in the previous studies, there are many wells extracting underground water. In the case of excessive use of such waters, there is the risk of salinity and desertification.

3.5.3. Geology, Geomorphology and the Formation of the Black Scamander Plain

According to Kayan (2005):

“The Troian culture flourished to the south of the location where the Dardanelles Strait opens to the Aegean Sea, over alluvial valley bases located along depressions that are defined by low profile plateau ridges. In the late Miocene, this area was covered with a shallow sea over the base of which sedimentary layers of sand, clay and lime had already conglomerated. Starting with end of the Miocene, these layers broke into blocks and rose up to form the plateau ridges of our times. The rivers were then directed to the depressions in between these ridges to turn them into valley bases. Accordingly, the main geomorphologic units near Troia comprise of three large plateau blocks separated by faults. To the west of the Scamander valley base is the Yeniköy Ridge which lies in the direction of south and north and which also separates it from the Aegean Sea. To the east are the Yeni Kumkale Ridge and the Troia Ridge which both stretch in the direction of east and south.” (Figure. 7)

Two sources of water are worth mentioning when the geomorphologic formation of the Troian Plain is considered. While Scamander Brook enters the Troian Plain from the south-southeast direction, a smaller brook, Kemer (Thymbrios), joins the system from the east. In addition to these two and towards the Dardanelles Strait, there is yet the Dümrek Brook (Simoeis), which again comes from the east. All of them have contributed to the destiny of Troia, which is founded on a ridge where the Dümrek alluvial plain meets the Scamander Plain. “At

the eastern sections, this ridge's altitude is 20-30 meters and it gradually becomes higher towards east to reach an altitude of 100-120 meters where it joins a higher relief. Northern slopes of the ridge are steep and involves faults, whereas the southern slopes show less steepness”

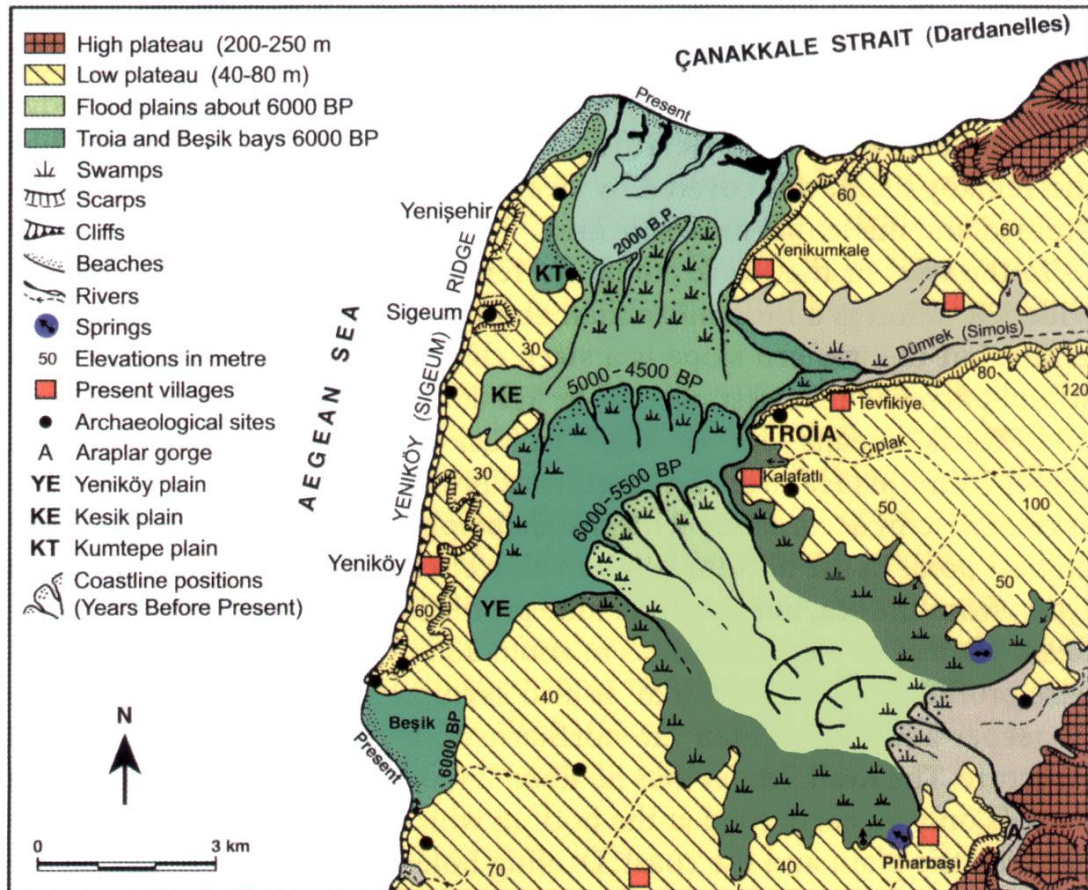


Figure 7. Main Geomorphologic Units in the Vicinity of Troia and the Formation of the Estuary/Flood Plain of the Scamander Brook During the Holocene¹⁶

It is very likely that Troia was located by the sea around 4000-3500 years ago. Kraft et al (2003) have evaluated Kayan's findings who performed drills in the site starting from 1970s. They stated that the radiocarbon evaluations of the findings from the drills pertaining to the vicinity of old Troia point to the evidence of a sea life around Late Neolithic and Early Bronze ages.(Figure 8)

¹⁶ Kayan, 2005

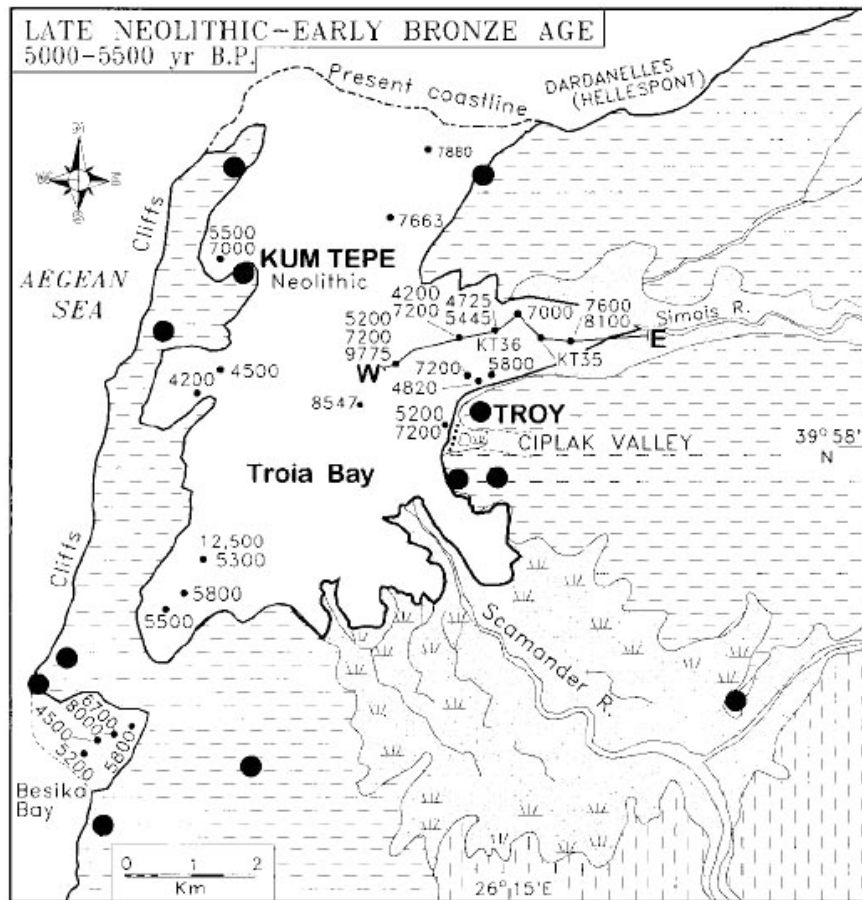


Figure 8. Late Neolithic – Early Bronze Age (B.C. 3000 – 2500)¹⁷

In this period, the Troian Plain was actually the Troian Bay. Yet, from the south Scamander and from the east Kemer (Thymbrios) and Dümrek (Simoeis) were continuously filling up the sea. The first layer of Troia is known to be founded 3000-2500 years ago. Now it is also known that by that time the city had already started to lose its coastal character because of the filling. Its shore was already a swamp. Kraft et al (2003) have commented about the filling of the Troian Bay. Their comments are partly based on Spratt's (Thomas Abel Brimage, 1811-1888, the British captain who made the cartography of the region in the 19th century) map of 1839 and give an idea about both the heydays and the fall of Troia. While Scamander's bed

¹⁷ Kraft et al, 2003

continuously changed, its eastern side had continuously remained as a swamp. (Figure 9.)

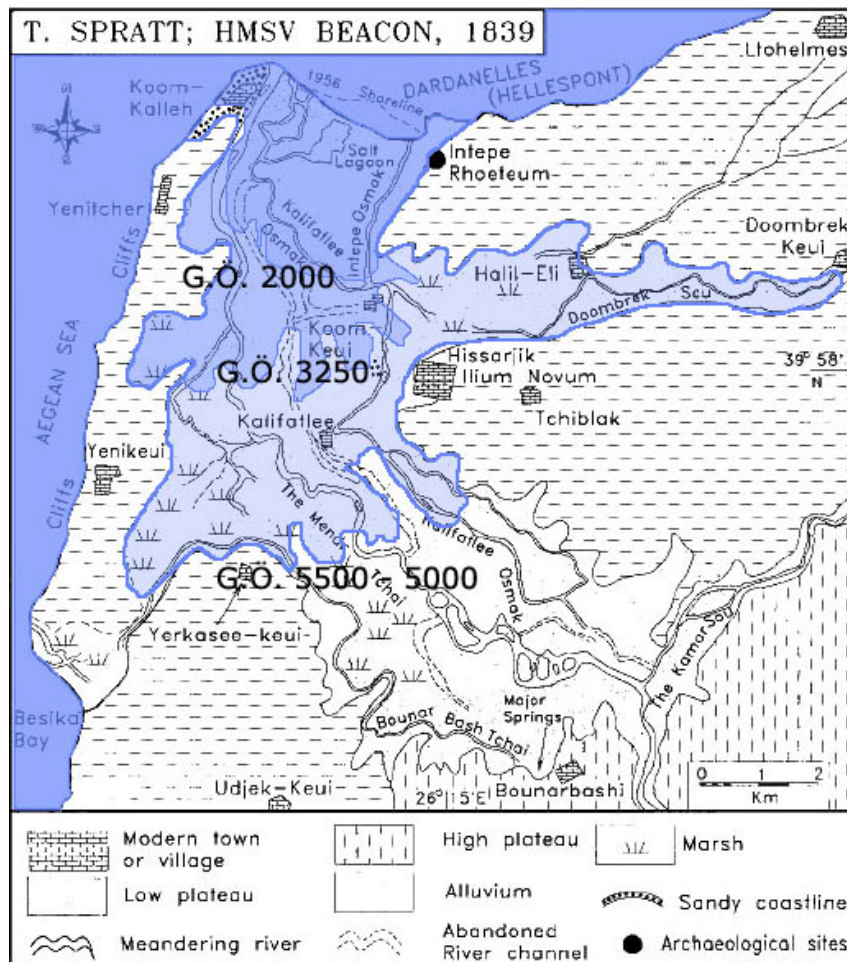


Figure 9. Filling Process of the Troian Bay ¹⁸

The filling process of the Troian Bay reveals interesting findings and therefore should be considered at length. According to recent data, the eastern side of the plain remained as a swamp through the ages, the reason of which can be partly stated as the Kirkgöz spring located at Pınarbaşı. Another reason might be sought in the way the Scamander filled up the Bay with the material it carried. It can be said that the filling has started and developed at the eastern parts leaving the western part as a marsh up until 2000s. Kirkgözler marsh was dried up until very recently. This topic is

¹⁸ Kraft et al, 2003

significantly important in terms of understanding the Trojan war. Kraft et al (2003) claim that the Achaean navy and camp were located in a bay of the time, between two hills which are now called Sivritepe and Ballıburuntepe in the Scamander plain. This contradicts other views which locate the navy and the camp at either Beşik Koyu or the Dardanelles Strait. It can also be claimed that this location was filled by Scamander later on. (Figure 10)

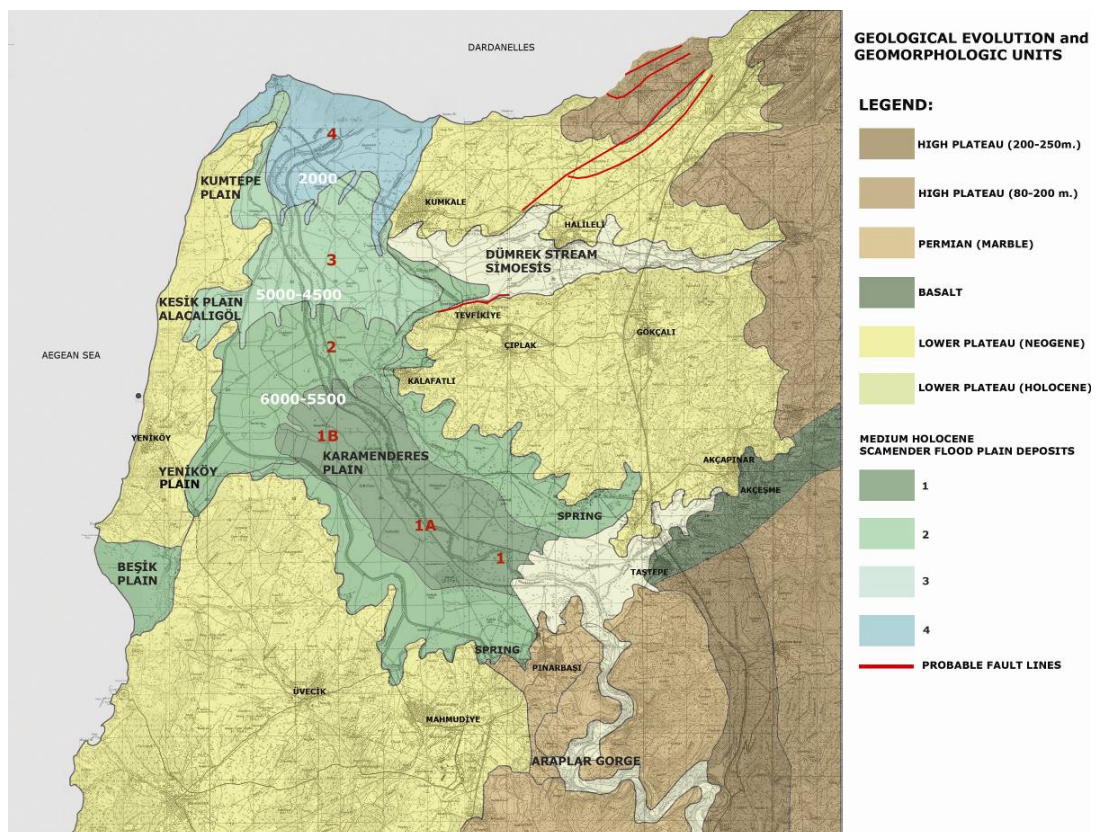


Figure 10. Geological Evolution and Geomorphologic Units of Troian Plain ¹⁹

Today, Scamander passes through deep valleys before it reaches the Troian Plain. Just to the north of the system of valleys where Scamander started filling up the Troian Plain the altitude of the land is around 10-15 meters. The filling of this portion has started around 6000-5500 years ago when the location of Troia was by the sea. The flat land to the north and northeast of Troia starts at an altitude of 10 meters. In other words, the city of Troia is 10 meters higher than the level of sea of that time.

¹⁹ Kayan, 2005 cited in Urban Design Studio, 2007

The current land with 5 or 10 meters altitude reveals some clues as to the foundation and life story of Troia. When the sea on three sides surrounded it, Troia's defense was much stronger, but the city gradually lost this advantage due to the filling, and turned in to a disadvantage during war with the Achaeans that was lost. Troia lost the war although it had its back to the mainland.

3.5.4. Homer's Landmarks in Troia

Intensive deep coring of the alluvial plain of the (Menderes) River in the vicinity of Hisarlık (ancient Troia) has established the approximate position of the shoreline in the Late Bronze Age (ca.1250 B.C.) At that date the Scamender flowed into a marine embayment that extended northwards to the Hellespont (Dardanelles) from or near the latitude of Troia. This palaeogeographic reconstruction has removed the basis for Schliemann's and Leaf's placing of the Greek Camp and Ship Station on the present coastline, and revived former speculation about the significance of the Beşik Bay anchorage to the south – west of Troia at the time of the Trojan War. (Wagner, Pernicka, Uerpmann, 2003:9)

3.5.5. The Coherence of the Scientific Informations with Topographical Indications in Homer's Iliad

These indicators presuppose an east – west, rather than a south – north, axis for the fluctuating fighting that Homer pictures. Luce argues that this tends to support the historicity of Homer's 'military topography', and gives reasons based on the Iliad, and Strabo's account of the Troad, for placing the Greek camp and ship station, not at Beşik Bay, but at a then existing salt lagoon (now, known as the Lisgar swamp or Kesik plain) that formed a westward extension of the Troia embayment in the neighbourhood of the ancient Sigeion.

3.5.6. Ottoman Period

Troia has endured until the 5th century. Between 700 B.C. and 500 A.D., it was Iliion. In the Byzantine era, the city became a small bishopric (Latacz, J., et al. 2001), to continue until 13-14th century. The German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann's interpretation of Iliad in the 19th century enabled the resurfacing of the city and then it became famous in the Western world. Piri Reis (1470 – 1554) made a map of Troia and its surroundings in 1520. (Figure 11). His comments (Kitab-I Bahriye, 2002) together with this map give some clues about the condition of the city and the region at that time. The region was not able to produce the urban culture, which the Troia of Antiquity once did. It was largely an agricultural region:



Figure 11. Map of Piri Reis; Bozcaada and the entrance of the Dardanelles Strait (Kitab-ı Bahriye, 2002)²⁰

From the map we can see that the filling of the Bay was continuing. Nevertheless, the plain had almost reached the current coastline of the Dardanelles Strait. (Figure 12)

²⁰ METU, UD, 2007

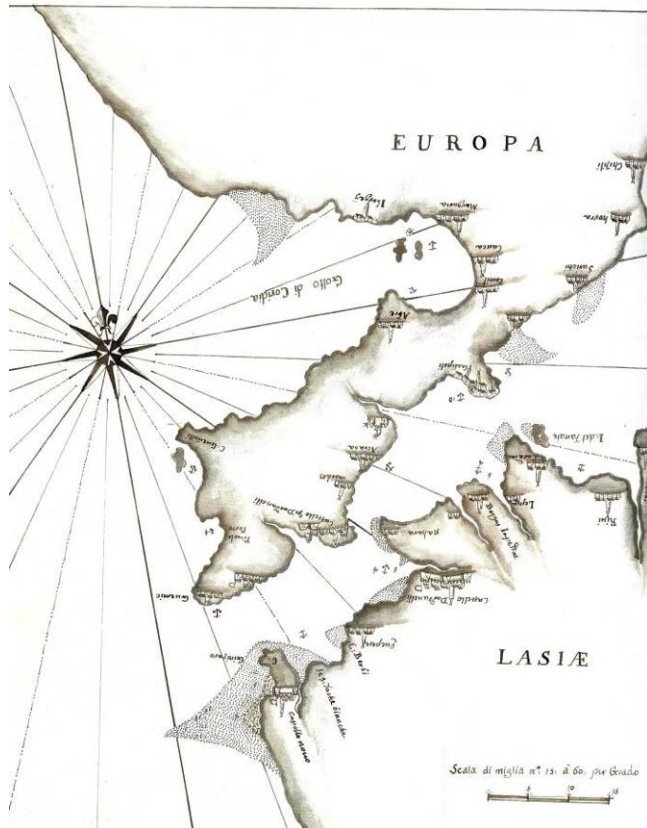


Figure 12. Dardanelles Strait in 1760 ²¹

There are two fortresses on both sides of the Dardanelles Strait at the entrance (or exit) of the Aegean Sea. One of them is Kumkale built on the sandy shore to the northern tip of the ridge where the city of Sigeion (or what remains from it) stands. At the opposite side of the Strait, at the southern tip of the Gallipoli Peninsula there is another fortress facing the Kumkale Fortress. This one is called Seddülbahir. (Figure 13 -14) They were built in 1658, under the auspices of Sultan Mehmet's (IV Mehmet) mother, Hatice Turhan Sultan, against the increasing Venetian attacks of the 17th century, to defend, first, the Straits (Dardanelles and Bosphorus) and second, Istanbul. Their architect was Mimar Mustafa Ağa.

²¹ historic-cities.huji.ac.il/turkey/dardanelles

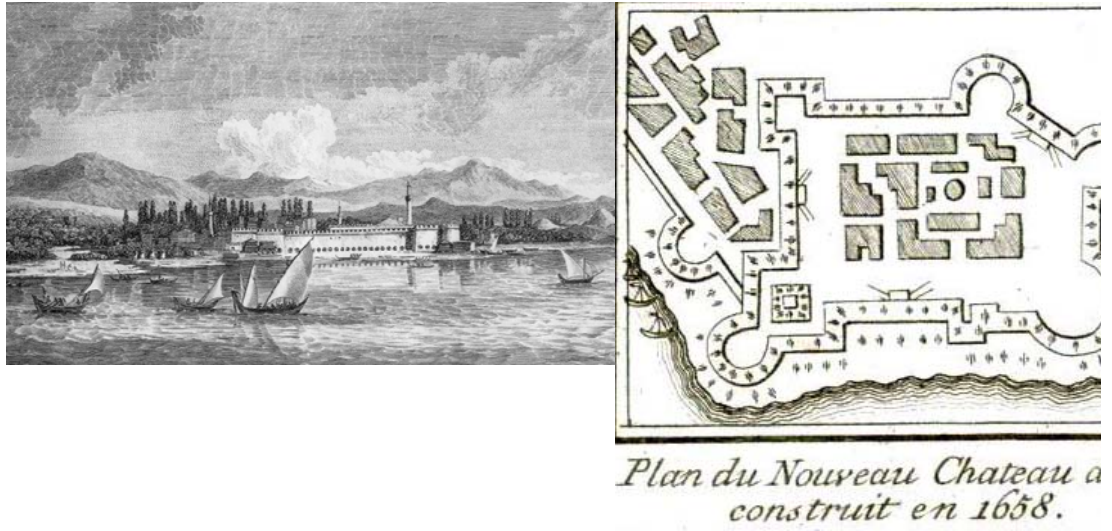


Figure 13. Kumkale Fortress²²

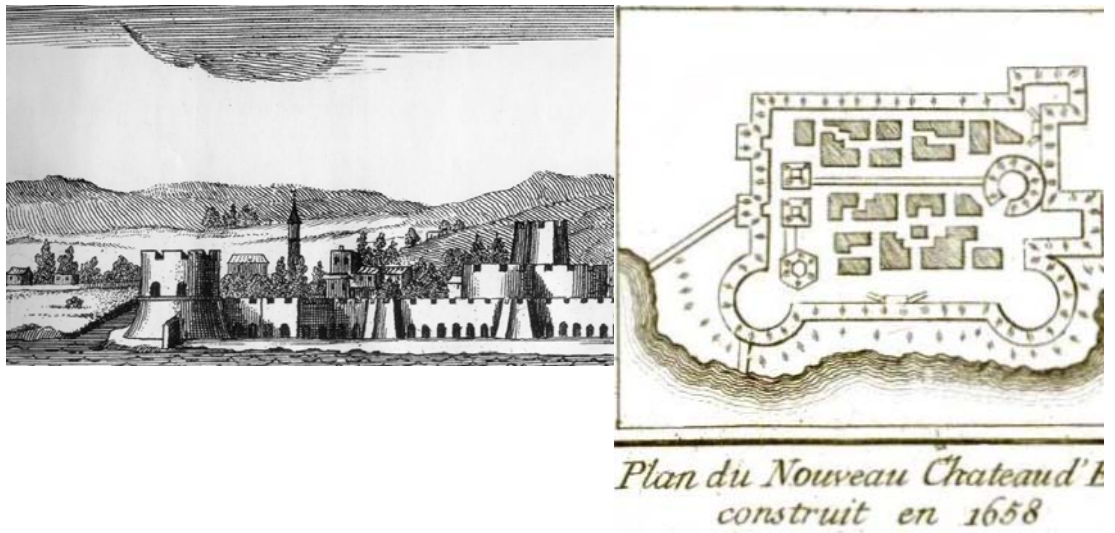


Figure 14. Seddülbahir²³

It is seen that life over the Scamander Plain has begun to vivify after the 18th century. Plain's coastal line started to take its final form during these years as well. Dardanelles is not a waterway for battleships only. It is also a waterway for international trade. While the fortresses were being built, there were drastic transformations in the rural production. In this period there were new

²² Kültür Bakanlığı, 1996; L.J. Masquetier

²³ Kültür Bakanlığı, 1996; J.P. De Tournefort "1656-1708"

settlements established all along the Aegean coast of the region in addition to those at the periphery of the Scamander Plain (Figure 15).

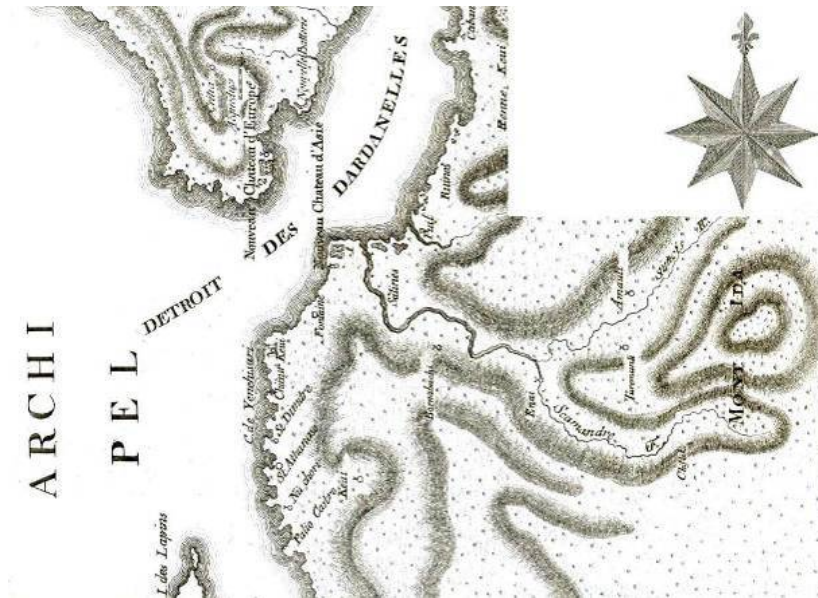


Figure 15. Entrance of Dardanelles in 1800²⁴

Spratt's map of 1839 which was examined by Schliemann in 1883 (Figure 14) gives clues about yet another issue. The marsh to the west of the Scamander was continuing at that time and the Ottoman administration was struggling to dry it with an infrastructure of canals.

²⁴ historic-cities.huji.ac.il/turkey/dardanelles

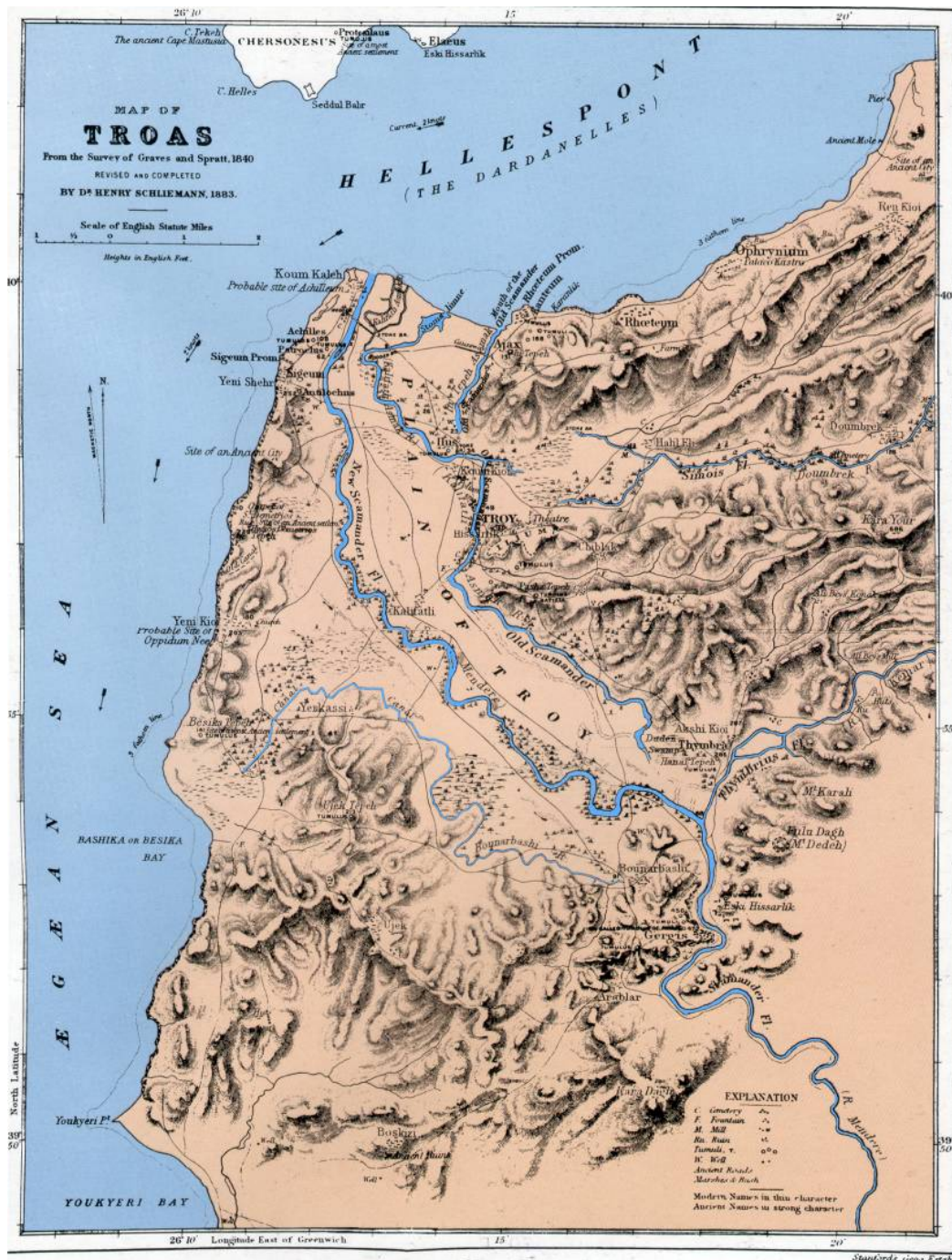


Figure 16. Geography During Schliemann's Period²⁵

Another characteristic of those times is the transforming orders in the rural and property structures. The central authority was gradually weakened in the rural realm thereby causing large estate holders to emerge. As a result, the treaty of Sened-i Ittifak was signed between these local property owners and

²⁵ Schliemann: 1883 – c.1969

the center. The treaty acknowledged the absolute control of local powers over property.

3.5.7. The Coast Line and the Layers of Troia

Briefly, Troia started, developed and declined in a process of geologic and geomorphologic formations and finally ended when the city lost its significance in terms of the functions that it once carried. This topic should be discussed in depth in the Troian stories and the museum and its exhibitions. There is a consensus among the scientists that Troia is formed of layers that were created by various cultures the continuity of which were sometimes interrupted and sometimes nested within each other.

It is also possible to reinterpret the emphasis on the layers via the transformation of the coastline. During the period where the first three layers flourished Troia is by the sea and with high probability its interaction with the sea took place in the area between the city and the village which is now called Kalafat.

It is stated that the Anatolian Culture was dominant in Troia IV and V. If this is the case, then it can be claimed that the land between Troia and the sea started to filling up in this period. Layers VI and VIIa are known to depict Troia's high culture period. It was this period that became subject to Homer's Iliad.

From Iliad one can follow that the clans from the Balkans as well as those from Anatolia supported Troia in the war against the Greeks. This is also the period when the Iron Age started. In this context, it is also told that the Balkan clans were influential on the life of layers VIIb1, VIIb2 and VIIb3.

By the time when Homer's Iliad (800 BC) and Strabon's Geography (Troia VIII and IX) were written the city was far from the sea. Simoeis and

Scamander had joined and a marshy land emerged between the sea and the city. On the one hand, the city was transformed in to a gridiron pattern that reflected the power of the Helen and Roman Empires. On the other, it was embellished with artifacts (like the theater or the Odeon) which reflected this power. Nevertheless, the Roman Empire was divided in to two and the capital of the eastern Empire was Istanbul. In this sense, Troia (Ilion), which gradually was cut off from the sea, would lose its prominence among competing towns. It first turned in to a small Byzantine bishopric. Then it went in to oblivion with the coming of the Muslim peoples (Piri Reis, 2002).

Troia Sea Culture	3000 – 2200				
		Troia I	2920 – 2350		Early Bronze
		Troia II	2550 – 2250		Early Bronze
		Troia III	2250 – 2200		Early Bronze
Troia Anatolian Culture	2200 – 1700				
		Troia IV	2200 - 1900		Mid Bronze
		Troia V	1900 - 1700		Mid Bronze
Troia High Culture	1700 – 1200	Troia VI	1700 – 1300		Late Bronze
		Troia VIIa	1300 – 1200	Homer's Troia	Late Bronze

Troia Balkan Culture	1200 – 1000				
		Troia VII b1			Iron
		Troia VII b2			Iron
		Troia VII b3			Iron
Dark Ages	1000 - 0700		Iliad of Homer (730 – 710)		
Helen Ilium Culture	B.C. 0700 – A.D. 0085	Troia VIII			Iron
After Christ	Geography of Strabon (B.C. 63 – A.D. 24)				
Roman Ilium Culture	0085 – 0500	Troia IX			Iron
Byzantine Ilium Culture	0500 - 1300	Troia X			Iron

Table 2. Layers of Troia ²⁶

²⁶ Latacz, J., et al. 2001

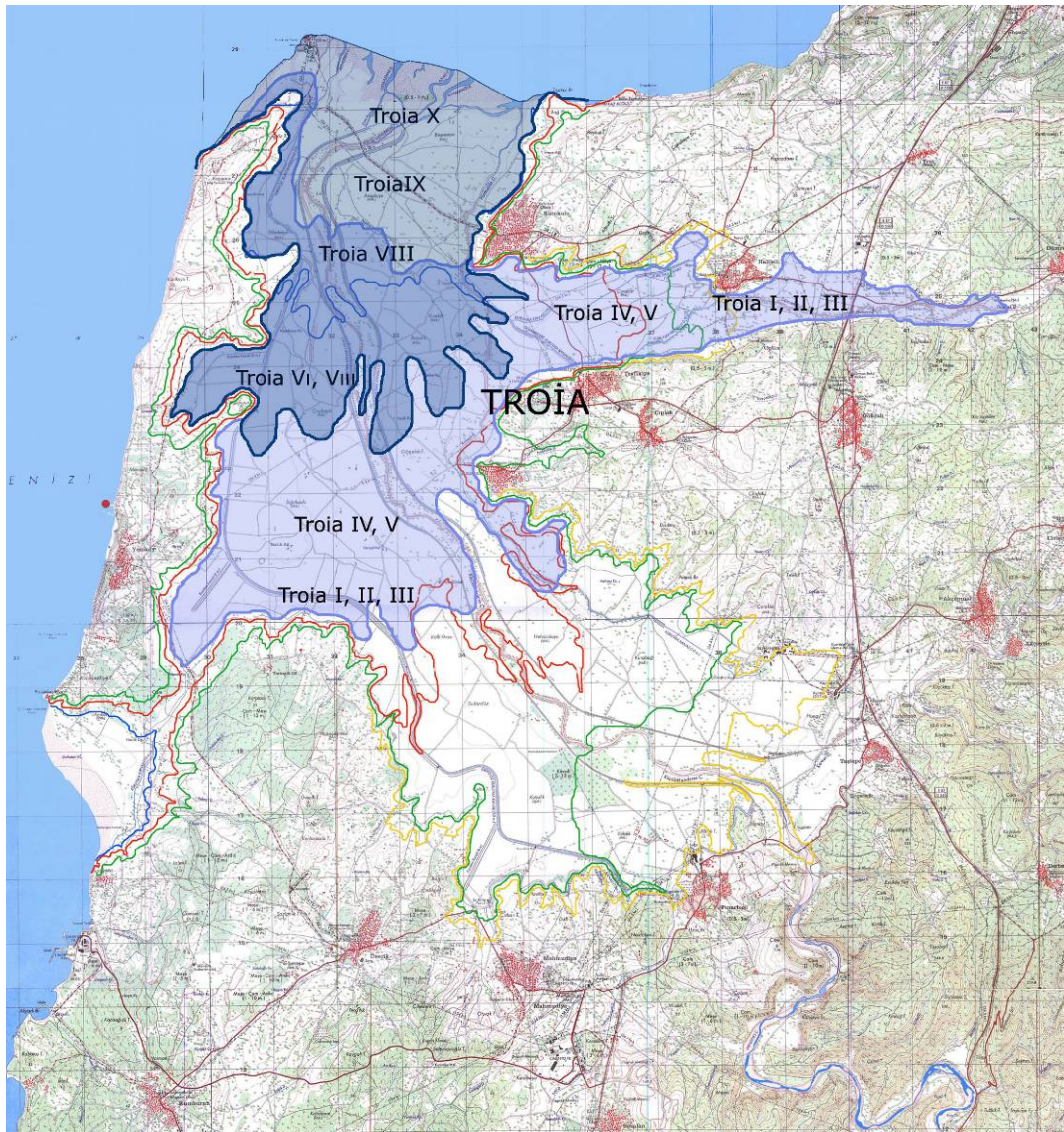


Figure 17. Layers of Troia ²⁷

3.6. Archaeological Settlements in the Troad

The Troad is rich in archaeological settlements, which began in the 6th millennium BC (Neolithic Era) and continued without interruption up to the Byzantine Era. These settlements played a significant role in the morphological make-up of the region, in particular, those from the third millennium BC, which as all over the region, were founded in locations with a

²⁷ Latacz, J., et al. 2001 cited in METU, UD, 2007

natural harbour; on the coast or by rivers. This settlement pattern, with few changes, has continued up to today.

Troia from the third millennium, up to the end of the second millennium, retained its situation on the coast.

Geomorphologic changes in the feature, however, would lead to its losing this important geopolitical advantage.

From the prehistoric period up to today, the most important aim has always been control over the Dardanelles; the pattern of settlement in the Troad developed to serve this objective. (Figure 18 -19)

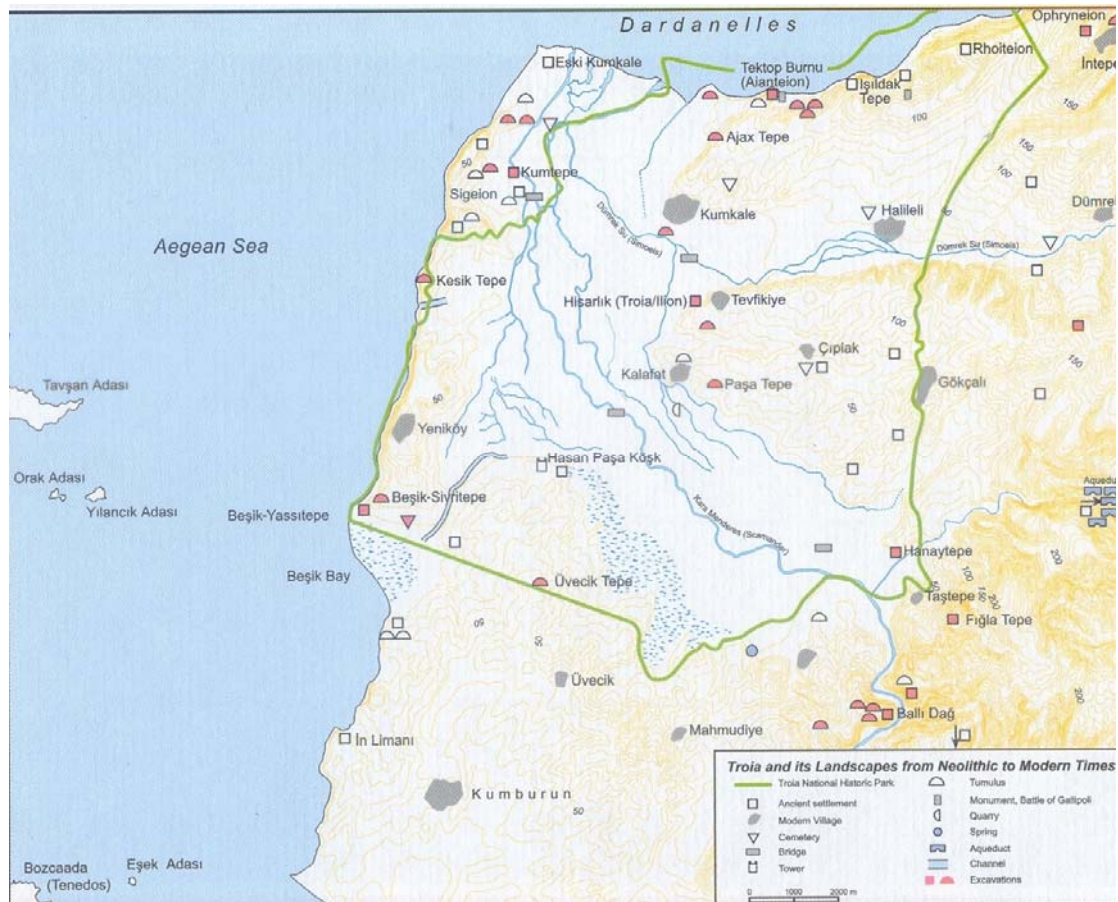


Figure 18. Archaeological Settlements of Troad ²⁸

²⁸ Wagner, Pernicka, Uerpmann, 2003

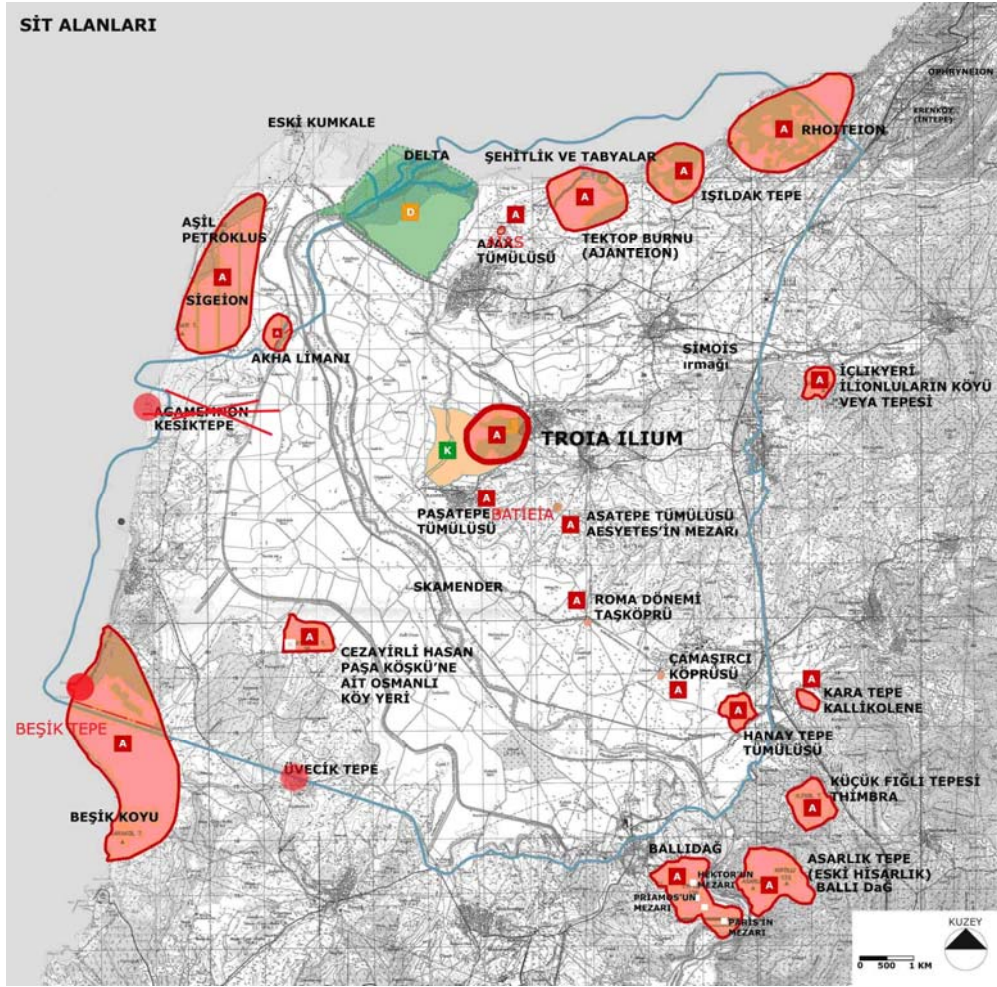


Figure 19. Preservation Sites²⁹

3.6.1. Assos

Assos is situated on a rocky headland between the River Tuzla to the North of the Gulf of Edremit and the sea. It is not known for certain whether it was first founded in the prehistoric era, but in the first millenium BC it possessed the characteristics of a Greek city. It is accepted that it was a colony of Aolik Methymna on Lesbos, according to Hellakinos of Lesbos, and was founded by Aioll from the island in the 7th century BC. Excavations have been carried out at Assos, with breaks, since the 19th century. So far, excavations have unearthed the temple, necropolis, theatre, and suchlike. Little in the way of

²⁹ LTDP, 2002 and documents of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in Tablo 5 cited in Urban Design Studio, 2007

housing has come to light. In 1988, however, house fragments from different phases were found on the eastern slope under the Acropolis.

3.6.2. Neandria

Neandria was founded on the slopes of Çığırı Dağı about 13 km. inland from Alexandria on the coast. The city is surrounded by a defence wall 3,200 metres long. In ancient sources it is said to have been founded by the Aioll people. It is known that toward the end of the fourth century BC, they migrated to Alexandria Troas on the coast. The houses in Neandria estimated to have been used for a period of about a century. Studies begun in the 19th century were completed several years ago. According to these, the houses of Neandria can be grouped into five types:

1. Houses with two courtyards,
2. houses with two or three residential courtyards
3. houses with right-angled courtyards
4. Asymmetrical houses with courtyards
5. houses with four residential pastas.

Particularly in the 4th and 5th centuries BC, many residential houses can be seen of a type without a courtyard surrounded by columns. The front of these houses is turned towards other buildings; however, the front courtyard is obstructed with a wall to prevent anyone seeing inside the house.

3.6.3. Alexandria Troas

Alexandria Troas was founded opposite the island of Tenedos (Bozcaada) in the late 4th century BC by Antigonos, a commander of Alexander the Great, as 'The Nation of Antigonos'. The name was changed to 'Alexandria Troas' by another of Alexander's generals, Lymsimakhos, who ruled over Western Anatolia. With the construction of an artificial harbour, the city soon became rich. After Byzantium was chosen as the new capital, the city lost its importance and many magnificent buildings fell into ruin. Stones from the city

were taken away to be used for buildings in Istanbul during Byzantine and Ottoman times. That is why local people still refer to the city as 'Old Istanbul'. In recent studies, remains belonging to the Hellenistic Period have been found, and also a tumulus belonging to the third millennium BC (Troia I period) on the point where the harbour was. Because of the grand ruins, European travellers for a long time thought that this city was Troia.

3.6.4. Settlements in the Troad from Ottoman to Republican Era

In the 13th century, the power centers in Anatolia began to change. Principalities were formed on the coasts of Western Anatolia. The Karasi Clan, who captured the Troad in 1302, connected the area to Bergama. In 1306, the Troad came under complete Turkish control. The Ottoman clan put an end to the sovereignty of the Karasi Clan and during the time of Sultan Orhan Gazi, took control of the Dardanelles. In 1463, Mehmet the conqueror built castles at Çanakkale and Kilitbahir. In 1912 the Greeks occupied Bozcaada and Gökçeada; however, control of the Straits remained with the Ottomans. A few years later, in 1915, the Gallipolli Campaign took place and left its mark on the area.

Despite all this, the old settlement pattern continued in the region and has continued up to the present day.

Until the 16th century, the epic tale of the Trojan War was assumed to be a real event that had influenced world history.

The place where the battles occurred became a place that scholars, writers, architects, and entertainers insistent on seeing while en route from the Mediterranean to Istanbul.

The Region was visited by a merchant and traveller Seawolf in 1103, Troia was visited by the Russian Daniel in 1107, the French Robert de Clari in

1203, the Spaniard Clavio in 1403, and by the German Schliemann in 1868. These visitors made maps of the region and documented important architectural remains, studies which continued until the 1930s.

From the 18th century onwards, we can also see the architectural features of the area in old prints and photographs, from the simple, flat-roofed stone and adobe houses on the coast to mansions and other grand dwellings where the ruling classes lived.

3.6.5. The Troad's Ethnic Richness

The Troad is where East meets West. This is reflected in the region's cultural richness, arising from its ethnic composition. In particular, the Sephardic Jews in 1492 and other waves of immigrants who followed enriched the ethnic diversity of the Troad. From the beginning of the 19th century to the 20th century, there was large-scale Turkish migration to the region from countries in the West such as Greece, Bulgaria, and Romania.

The study by the Frenchman Cuinet in 1980 shows what a colourful diversity existed in the population of the Çanakkale region.

This ethnic composition of the region began to break up from the middle of the 20th century onwards, though this ethnic richness can still be seen among the nomads (Yörüks), Turcomans, and Greeks from the islands, a diversity which is also reflected in their architecture.

The Bronze Age (c. 3500-1200 BC) is significant because it was when cities and administrative systems first appeared and the use of metals became widespread in this period. A trading network developed from Mesopotamia to the Southeast and Eastern Anatolia which later expanded to Central Anatolia and the coast of Western Anatolia. After 3000 BC, trade intensified especially in the Black Sea, Aegean, and Mediterranean regions.

Troia was established at the mouth of the Dardanelles during this period with city walls that were defensive in purpose.

The first settlement at Troia had walls with a stone base and sun-dried brick above containing megaron houses parallel to each other. Structures in conformity with the environment continued in the following period bearing characteristic features of Anatolian architecture.

At Troia and in the Troad, the richness of the building reveals itself and we can observe in the traditional housing architecture of today clear examples of housing appropriate to the surroundings.

3.6.6. Constitution and Development of City of Çanakkale

3.6.6.1. Founding of City of Çanakkale: 1462-1463

Çimenlik Castle, built in 1462-1463 at the narrowest point (1450m.) along the Dardanelles, formed the nucleus of the city of Çanakkale. After the Mehmet the Conqueror had captured Istanbul, there was a need for a castle to prevent continuing attacks from the Mediterranean. Soon after the castle had been completed, settlement began and the city's first neighbourhoods came into being. (METU, UD, 2007)

3.6.6.2. A defence and Garrison City: 1463-1700

Çanakkale is one of those rare cities that was actually established at the wish of the Ottomans. The city's first inhabitants were the Moslem soldiers and bureaucrats on duty at the castle's construction. With the increase in the number of Moslem Turks in the 1500s and 1600s, Greeks and Armenians also settled in the city in the same period. As the population increased, the Moslem Turks developed the city. (METU, UD, 2007)

3.6.6.3. A Trading City: 1700-1900

The trading mission that began in the 1700s continued up to the beginning of the 1900s. The Ottomans having consolidated control over the region in the 1700s and 180s, this was the period when the city's character was formed and it experienced enlargement. The Jewish community brought trade and formed a Jewish quarter in the city. International trade was developed by about 30 mercantile attaches who settled in the city. This commercial richness and vitality is reflected in the buildings. (METU, UD, 2007)

3.6.6.4. War and Destruction: 1900-1950

From the early 1900s Çanakkale experienced many wars-The Balkan Wars, Gallipoli Campaign, War of Independence, Second World War-and city life was affected accordingly. Most of the minorities left the city and Moslem migrants from the Balkans and islands came in their place. Despite the new settlements and some new building amid the physical destruction that had taken place, there was no enlargement of the city in this period. (METU, UD, 2007)

3.6.6.4. Change and Modernity in Çanakkale

The first civic plan, produced in the 1940s, provided for change in the city in keeping with the ideology of the Republic. As a result of this plan, main roads, industrial estates, official buildings, and new housing estates were laid out in the 1950s. The 1960s was a period of planned state investment with aim of developing specific areas. (METU, UD, 2007)

3.6.6.4. Migration Brings Growth

Between the years 1970 – 1980 investment led to an increase in migration to the city. Migrants settled in the city from various parts of Turkey together with those from nearby towns and villages. The city grew quickly and multi-storey apartments came to dominate the centre of the city. (METU, UD, 2007)

3.6.6.4. State-Administered Construction: 1980-1985

In the years following the military coup of 1980, many public buildings were constructed on unused state-owned land. Structures from this period include: the law courts, social security building, Anafartalar Hotel, Zafer Evler, the new bus station, municipality offices, waterfront arts centre, and suchlike.

3.6.6.4. The Last Two Decades: 1985-2005

In 1985, with the handing over of civic planning authority to municipalities, begins a time of measuring land and an increase in storeys and density. Today and in the near future, cities have turned into centres of speculation. The disappearance of local values and developments contrary to city planning are the product of this period. From the 1990s onward, various developmental issues- Dardanelles bridge, Regional Industrial Estate, port, enlargement of airport, establishing a university-become topical.

Since 1994, ÇEYAP has aimed to preserve and revitalise the historical, cultural, and architectural heritage of Çanakkale for the benefit of the community. Related activities have included: preparation of a preservation plan, documenting with drawings and photographs heritage buildings within the city, formation of a local history group, active participation in the Historical Cities Commission, archaeological meetings, civil activist group Gündem 21, and restoration of shop facades. A change in the city has thus been affected which is reflected in the architecture of new buildings, an increase in buildings erected in accordance with local architectural styles, restoration of listed buildings, and even new buildings outside the preservation area. (METU, UD, 2007)

CHAPTER IV

REVIEWING PREVIOUS PLANNING WORKS OF THE AREA IN TERMS OF LANDSCAPE ARCHAEOLOGY ISSUES AND DEFINING POSSIBLE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

4.1. Management and Planning History of the Area

The process of recognition of the Troia as a listed cultural heritage and conservation, management and presentation studies of the area within Troad Region starts with listing of Troia in 1968. Some remarkable attempts are as mentioned below:

- Troia archeological site was listed by Higher Council of Immovable Historical and Monumental Heritage on 13th May 1968.
- The National Parks Department of the Ministry of Forests prepared a plan for its preservation in 1971. This involved the creation of the Troia Historical National Park, with the construction of a tour road and a branch road to the site, a camping site, limited development on the coast, and relocation of the existing villages of Tefikiye and Kalafat.
- Higher Council of Immovable Historical and Monumental Heritage decided on the expropriation of the parcels at the site and entrance and exit of the Troia Archeological Site in addition to the fencing of the area.
- The General Directorate of Cultural and Natural Heritage of the Ministry of Culture published a development plan for the site in 1991. This defines the boundaries of the site, those areas still to be taken into State ownership, areas for public access, potential primary and secondary excavation facilities, the locations of tourist facilities and

installations, the rerouting of roads, and the removal of a nearby rubbish dump. This is not yet being implemented.

- South Çanakkale Coastal Area Master Plan, which was approved in 1992 by the Ministry of Public Works and Settlement, includes Troia Historical National Park as well.
- The additional decision of the Edirne Regional Council for the Preservation of the Cultural and Natural Heritage declares the Troia Archaeological Site as a Grade 1 Archaeological Site (26th May 1995, No: 2414)
- The region which also includes Troia (13350 ha) is declared as the Troia Historical National Park by the decision of the Board of the Ministers on the 30th September 1996 (No. 96/8676)
- A group of specialists from ICOMOS visited Troia in December 1997.
- Troia is included in the World Cultural Heritage List on 2nd December 1998 with the registration number 849.
- The Ministry of Environment and Forests approved Troia Long Term Development Plan (LTDP) on the 9th June 2004.

4.1.1. South Çanakkale Coastal Area Master Plan (1/25000)

South Çanakkale Coastal Area Master Plan was approved by the Ministry of Public Works and Settlement in 1992. The plan's coverage area runs along the coast of the Aegean Sea and contains the site of Troia Historical National Plan.

Upon the approval of Troia Long Term Development Plan by the Ministry of Environment and Forests in 06 June 2004, the rules of the new plan became valid within the territory of the National Park.

Çanakkale Coastal Area Master Plan protects agricultural uses and assigns “special product zones” (olives or vineyards) towards the southern edge of plan boundaries. A similar attitude prevails for forests and pastures, and specifically concentrated on the northeast of the site, forestation zones tend to sustain the natural environment. In conformity with the adopted approach, bushes, heathers, pastures, rock formations, beaches and dunes, water protection zones and Spas are all taken under preservation.

The strip of tourism and second-home development on the Çanakkale strait coast is removed in the national park Long Term Development Plan; unfortunately, however, the archeological and nature protection sites on the ridges along the Aegean Sea are not indicated in the Long Term Development Plan.

The area designated as military zone on the northwest edge stays out of the boundaries of the national park. In this zone there is one archeological, one historical (Gallipoli marine and land war site registered on 11 June 1999) site and Kesik tumulus, which are not indicated in Long Term Development plan. Moreover, the plan is indifferent to the restricted marine zones at the entrance of Çanakkale Strait.

Kum Burnu beach 6-7 km south of the national park is preserved as a natural site. Territory to the south of Kum Burnu beach is planned as a tourism center to accommodate tourist facilities and second homes.

The most inappropriate use in the vicinity of the national park is the cement factory just out of its boundaries, and its storage and shipping facilities on the coast. In the Long Term Development Plan report, we are told that through

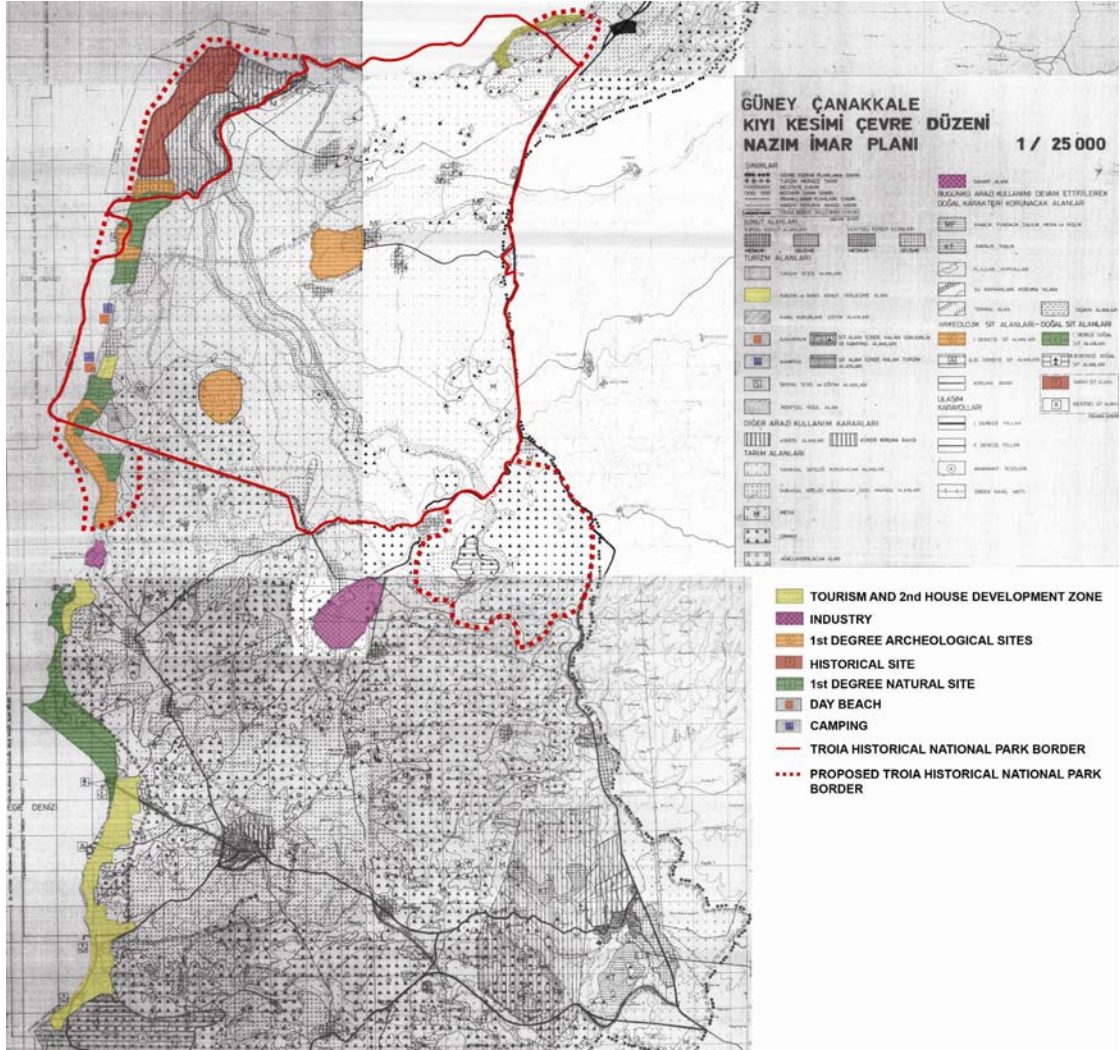


Figure 20. Çanakkale Coastal Area Master Plan³⁰

investments made in 1999, the exhaust system was supported by filters to reduce emission and that factory administration is particular in achieving world standards. This point should be regarded as a natural consequence of technology of the modern age. On the other hand, we are also informed that leather factories in the city of Ezine further south are discharging their wastewaters into the Scamander River.

As a result of the above discussion, the boundaries of Troia Historical National Park should be reconsidered in the context of South Çanakkale

³⁰ Egeplan Ltd.: 2004

Coastal Area Master Plan, to cover military zones on the northwestern, Beşik bay and Üvecik tumulus on the southwestern, the tumuli on the southeastern and Rhoiteion on the northern edges of the present national park. (Egeplan Ltd.; METU, UD, 2007)

4.1.2. Troia Historical National Park Long Term Development Plan Decisions

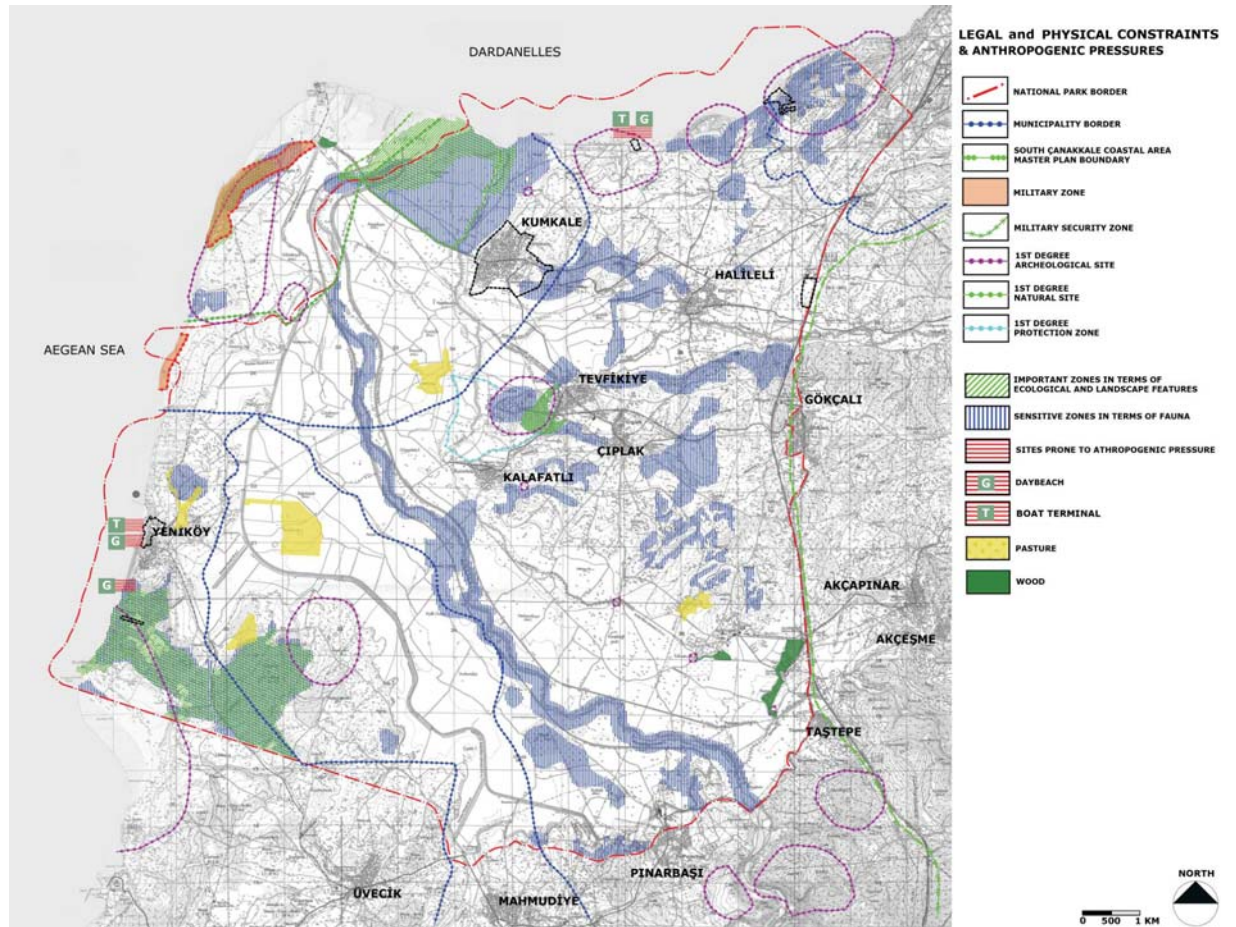


Figure 21. Legal Constraints and Anthropogenic Pressures³¹

Troia archeological site and its environs was declared a Historical National Park by a Government decree on 30 September 1996. The Ministry of Environment and Forests approved Troia Historical National Park Long Term Development Plan on 09 June 2004.

³¹ Egeplan Ltd; LTDP, 2002; cited in METU, UD, 2007

The fourth article of the National Parks Law stipulates that;

In designated national parks, taking into consideration the character and attributes of its location, long term development plans should be prepared by the Ministry of Environment and Forests in order to implement objectives of preservation and use, to contain a development plan concerning management of the park, upon positive views of related ministries and when necessary their actual contribution.

Considering the constraints and pressures mapped in Figure above, the main goal of the Long Term Development Plan was formulated “to sustain existing values of the park to be transferred to the coming generations” and objectives were concluded accordingly (LTDP, 2002):

- Archeological values should be preserved and necessary support provided to scientific excavations
- Ecological balance should be sustained
- Geomorphologic structure should be preserved to sustain the natural environment
- Development demands of the existing settlements should be controlled
- Environmental pollution (air, soils, water and noise) should be prevented
- Limits of agricultural production should be determined to sustain archeological and geomorphologic formations
- The chaotic administrative structure should be coordinated by a management plan

The planning decisions of the Long Term Development Plan have been summarized as:

- Development of settlements within the park are restricted
- Agricultural production needs programming
- Pesticides used in agriculture are to be restricted

- A solid waste disposal site should be established out of the national park
- The two fisherman's havens should provide passenger transportation to the Gallipoli Peninsula Historical National Park
- Ecological agricultural production needs to be supported
- Illicit hunting should be prevented

The consequent plan was developed to overcome the problems of the designated national park. (METU, Urban Design Studio, 2007)

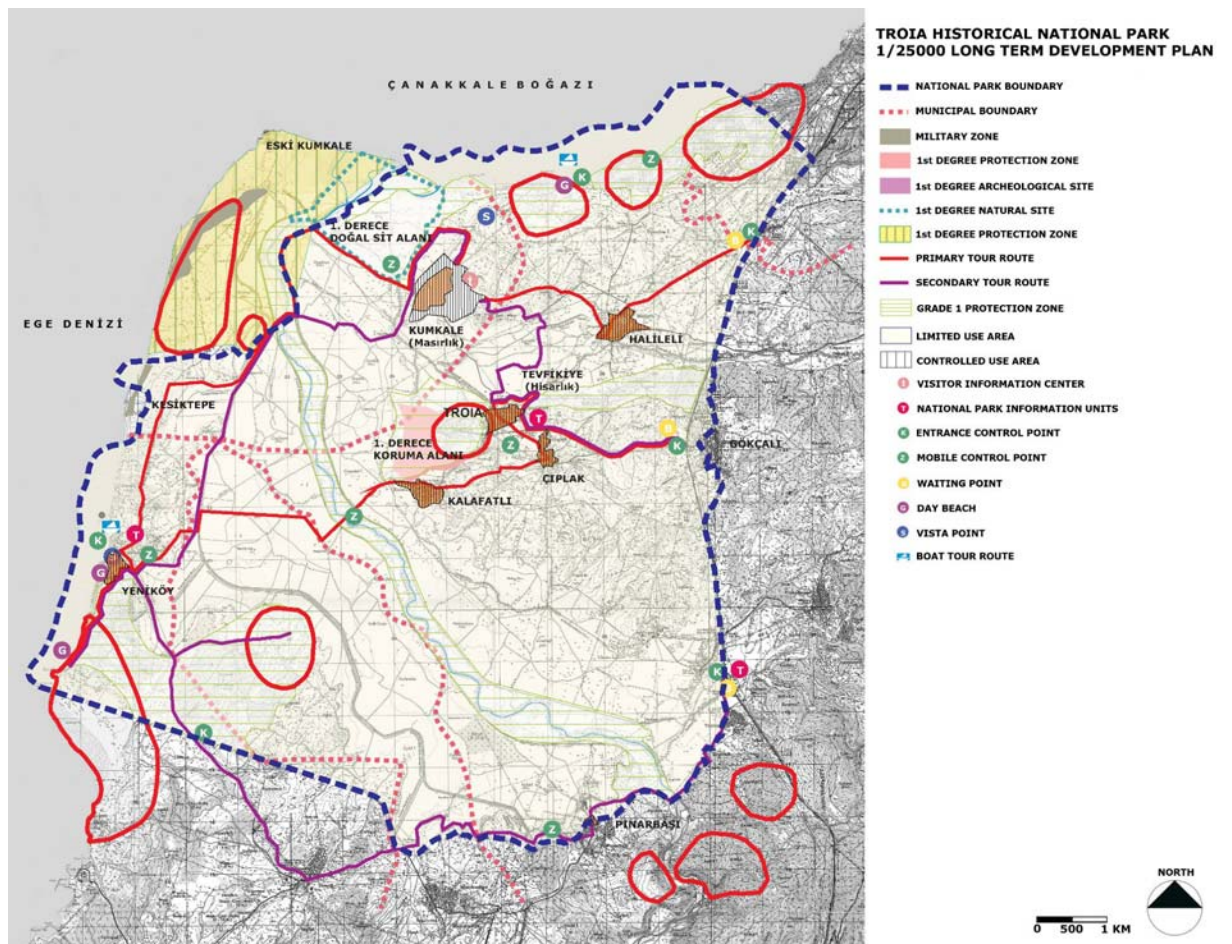


Figure 22. Troia Historical National Park Long Term Development Plan³²

³² LTDP, 2002

As mentioned earlier, the genesis of the Troia Historical National Park is the phenomenon of Troia with its settlements, transformation of its geomorphology, tumuli, multi-layered town and the Trojan War. Deliberately Troia is considered a phenomenon, rather than a town or an archeological site, because it is a theater scene. Unfortunately, however, the visitors can visit only the excavated Acropolis.

The Long Term Development Plan has conceived the archeological sites merely as topics of excavation, concentrating more on the natural and ecological facades of the park. This outlook has affected the plan and its notes, where archeological sites only have boundaries and they are preserved. No spatial or managerial model was developed to enhance the setting of Troia.

The plan envisages landscape values as merely subjects of preservation leaving their development patterns open-ended. The two routes and viewpoints do not have any motive, and what they shall be exhibiting is obscure. (METU, UD: 2007)

4.2. Management of Archaeological Sites and Cultural Landscapes

4.2.1. The Character of the Management Plans

Management is defined as a process “which must be used in order to bring ‘ideas, people and things’ together to meet aims and objectives and to analyze the various means of achieving these objectives” offering “means of measuring how well objectives are being met and how best conflicting information can be reconciled” (Bromley, 1996: 16 cited in Öz, 2002:34). One of the founding elements of management is systematically working on understanding the future and the possible changes so as to make appropriate decisions today.

In other words, management is, to approach an aim within a systematic framework, by understanding the resource, analyzing the data achieved from the resource, to foresee the possible changes and reach the aim by skillfully evaluating all of those aspects. (Öz, 2002:34)

Management is also a suitable method for conservation and sustainability of archaeological sites and cultural landscapes According to Feilden and Jokilehto, management, based on detailed analysis of the site's significance, has to include the following criteria (1993: 2):

- ensuring that all site staff understand the cultural values to be preserved
- providing specific guidelines based upon the statement of significance of the site
- making complete inventory of all the cultural resources within the site
- arranging for regular inspections and formal reports by the professionals with suitable qualifications and experience
- drafting a strategic management plan leading to the formulation of resource projects which are incorporated into an annual work programme according to their priority
- respecting, in all work, the ethics of conservation, the established international recommendations of UNESCO, and guidelines such as the Venice Charter

4.2.2. Stages of Preparation of a Management Plan

The basis of preparing the management plan is to thoroughly evaluate the site with all its positive and negative sides and to understand its values. The stages of preparation of a management plan concerning archaeological sites are most clearly defined by Feilden and Jokilehto and S. Sullivan, as well as in the Burra Charter. (Öz:2002.39)

In their guideline book on the management of World Heritage Sites, Feilden and Jokilehto outline the process of preparation as follows (1993: 35):

- initial survey of the site
- site description and boundary definition
- identification of resources
- evaluation of resources
- formulation of objectives and consideration of constraints
- definition of projects
- work programme and annual plans
- execution of works
- recording, reporting and review of results
- storage of information and data
- revision of site description and re-evaluation
- formulation of revised objects and reconsideration of constraints
- definition of further projects
- revised work programme and next annual plan

An important issue that must be taken into consideration starting from the beginning of the planning process is to gather information about the national and local plans, forecasts of demographic growth and decline. Similarly, S. Sullivan describes the preparation of a management plan with the following outline (Sullivan, 1997: 17):

- identification of key interest groups:
- documentation of the site
- significance assessment
- management assessment
- definition of management policy
- definition of management strategies

According to the outlined processes, the preparation process involves a clear understanding of the site which is accomplished by detailed documentation and by locating and integrating the key interest groups, the people or groups which value the site, have stakes in it or responsible from its administration. This knowledge is then used to state the values attributed to the site. Having defined the values, all data are collected which will affect the management of the site. Finally, the policies are defined followed by the statements of strategies for implementations of those policies. (Öz,2002:41)

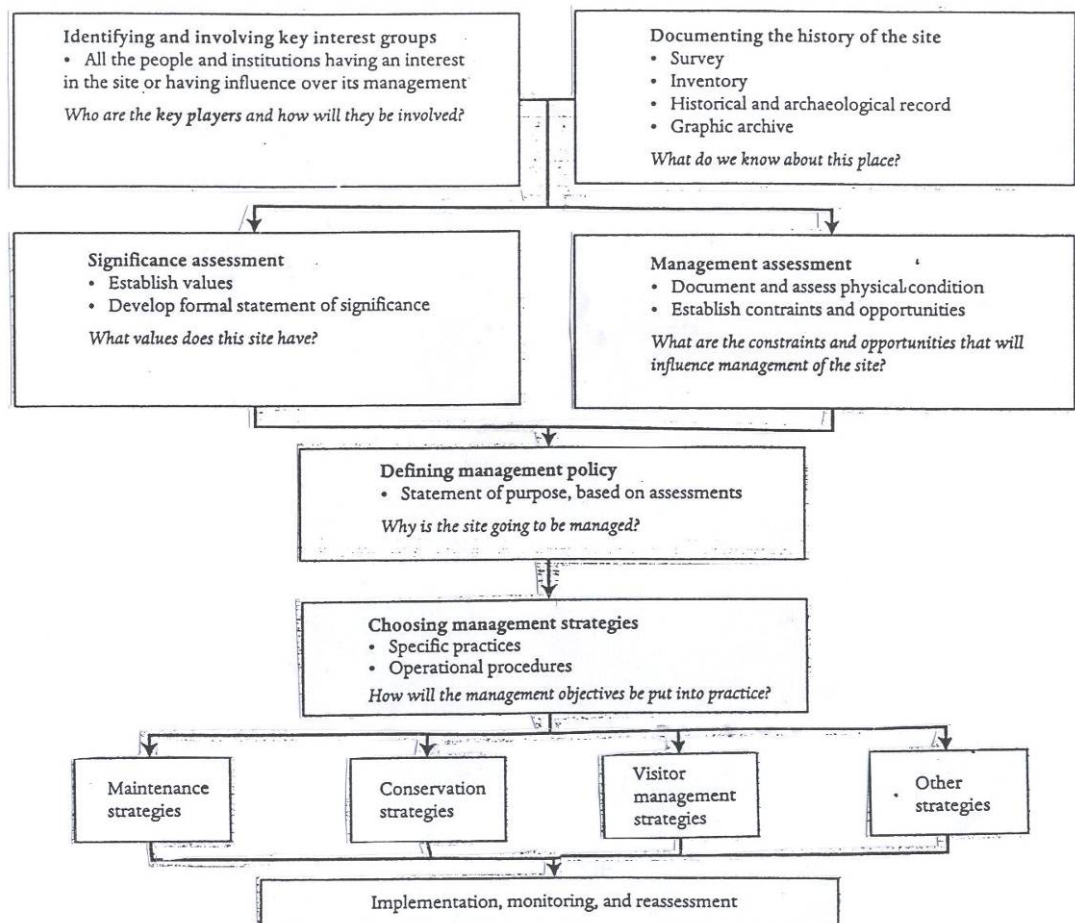


Figure 23. The Planning Process of Management (Sullivan, 1997:17)

Likewise, The Burra Charter (Truscott-Young, 2000), gives the following sequence for preparing management plans:

- identify place and associations
- gather and record information about the place to understand significance
- assess significance
- prepare a statement of significance
- identify obligations arising from significance
- gather information about other factors affecting the future of the place
- develop policy
- prepare a statement of policy
- manage place in accordance with policy
- monitor and review

4.2.3. Cultural Landscape as a Concept within Management Plans

Cultural landscapes are today a resource whose preservation represents a most modern theme, relevant to a great number of sectors such as planning, cultural heritage preservation, rural development, nature conservation and forestry. The role of the landscape and therefore its perception has changed through time; it is no longer just a 'cultural' aspect, but emerges as an essential element in the interpretation of a modern approach to sustainable development, far from paradigmatic views, but close to the needs of a large part of society in the whole world.

The definition given by Carl Sauer in 1926 gives the core concept: "The cultural landscape is fashioned from a natural landscape by a culture group. Culture is the agent, the natural area the medium, the cultural landscapes the result." In those same years the Italian philosopher Benedetto Croce promoted the first law protecting landscape in Italy, mostly based on the concept of the preservation of aesthetic values, an interesting but very different approach.

A more modern concept considers cultural landscapes to be the expression of historical integration between social, economical and environmental factors, influencing all aspects of development. According to the European Landscape Convention, landscape constitutes a resource favourable to economic activity, contributing to human well being and consolidation of cultural identity. At world level there is an evident trend towards degradation and the creation of less valuable landscapes, up to the point that cultural landscapes are often more endangered than nature. (M. Agnoletti, 2006,xi)

4.2.4. Cultural Landscapes in International Documents

Until recently, international documents regarding sustainable development said little about cultural landscapes. The Stockholm declaration of 1972 and the Bruntland Report in 1987 did not refer to landscape. It has been introduced to the World Heritage Convention in 1992. Before that time convention was mainly protecting natural heritage and cultural heritage, the latter concerning mostly monuments or architectural assets, with emphasis placed on the aesthetic.

According to the WHC of UNESCO, cultural landscapes represent the “combined work of nature and of man. They are illustrative of the evolution of human society and settlements over time, under the influence of the physical constraints or opportunities presented by their natural environment and of successive social, economic and cultural forces, both external and internal.” (M. Agnoletti, 2006,)

At a European level the European Landscape Convention (ELC) is the most comprehensive proposal applying to the entire territory while the Pan – European Biological and Landscape Diversity Strategy set up for the period 1996 - 2016 offers a more specific approach.

4.2.5. European Landscape Convention and its Efforts to Cultural Landscape Management

One milestone in European cultural landscape management has been set by the European Landscape Convention. It is based on the 'Carta del paisaje mediterraneo', which was signed in 1993 in Siena (Italy) by the regions from Spain, France and Italy. About the same time, the Dobris Assessment (Stanners and Bourdeau, 1995) and the World Conservation Union (IUCN, 1993) in its publication Parks for Life: Actions for Protected Areas in Europe recommend drawing up a 'European Convention on Landscapes' which would involve the Council of Europe. After having set up an ad hoc (on the purpose) working group composed of members of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (CLRAE) and other institutional, national and regional bodies, the draft European Landscape Convention is introduced by the CLRAE. Its main objective is that 'public authority concern for landscapes will become a political authority issue, since landscape quality is a key factor in the well being of European citizens and the strengthening of a European sense of identity' (Council of Europe and Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe, 1998).

On 20 October 2000 the European Landscape Convention was signed in Florence by 18 countries, and entered into force on 1 March 2004. Seventeen countries have ratified the convention so far (as of April 2005: Armenia, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Ireland, Lithuania, Moldova, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, San Marino, Slovenia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey)

The convention's objective is to enhance landscape protection, management and planning and to organize a European cooperation on landscape issues. Measures to be realized on national levels are:

- Awareness rising
- Training and education
- Identification and assessment of landscapes;
- Identification of landscape quality objectives and
- Implementation

The Landscape award has been included in the convention. The Council of Europe Landscape Award is dedicated to local and regional authorities as well as NGOs which have taken initiatives for the conservation, management and/or development of landscape quality. The initiatives have to fall into one of the following categories:

- Awareness, education and participation
- Scientific and technical activities; and
- Protection, management and planning.

4.2.6. Identifying the Most Important Landscape Types

The more valuable a cultural landscape, the more protection it deserves, but as it is mentioned above, the question of how the value can be assessed in an objective way proves to be difficult. The answer depends on the objectives, which are followed by protection measures: to preserve the cultural landscape in its actual state, or to permit further development.

Generally important characteristics of the cultural landscapes are *diversity*, *character* and *rarity*. Time determines the value, often indirectly by determining *rarity*: the older the cultural landscape and the elements within, the more rarely this type of landscape is likely to be found. On the other hand, the diversity of Europe's landscapes could only develop through the activities of man. If somebody had decided, in the 17th or 18th century to stop landscapes from further development, today's diversity could not ever have been developed. This is why transformation of cultural landscape is

interpreted in different ways, namely as endangerment on the one hand, and as desired further development on the other.

One single arrangement or solution that fits all the different cases and regional specifications will not be found, but two questions are interesting:

- Who decides which cultural landscapes are valuable and which are not?
- Who decides which objectives cultural landscape management is following.

Different actors appear within the cultural landscape protection arena: tourists, farmers, politicians, planners, scientists and others. They can be grouped into the categories 'landscape preservers', 'landscape exploiters', 'land labouring population' and 'landscape users' (Schenk, 2001)

The institutions and organizations that develop and realize the different management approaches play a crucial role. They act on different spatial levels, within different thematic fields. (e.g. heritage protection, nature protection, spatial planning), have a differing legal status and organizational form. (e.g. governments, NGOs, foundations, research institutes) and they follow more or less obligatory concepts.

National policies and international organizations also influence the European cultural landscapes. Naturally those approaches with a broader spatial context (global, Europe - wide) are less detailed than the ones applied to smaller areas. (national, regional or local). Local and regional measures rarely radiate on the European level, but in certain cases, they can serve as best practice studies.

For identifying the most important landscape types, Meeus (1995) applies six selection criteria:

- Main land forms that characterize the geological and climatic zones.
- Economic potential of land use and landscape
- Landscapes that are characterized by a combination of ecologically sound processes and sustainable use of natural resources.
- Extensively managed areas (as substitute for the true wilderness areas, which are absent in most part of the Europe.)
- Regionally specific settlement patterns, ancient field systems, old trees, terraces and vernacular architecture.
- Scenic quality and visual characteristics. (Agnoletti, 2006: 186)

4.2.7. The Process of Cultural Landscape Conservation

Cultural landscape conservation can be understood as a concept overwhelming the different approaches of planning and handling the cultural heritage in our landscapes. It is based on reflections on what is important in historical landscapes for the present and future societies. Figure 24 shows the process of Cultural Landscape Care (CLC).

According to Agnoletti (2006), first of all, an overview of the present historical structures and elements in our modern landscapes is needed.

Second, a broad discussion on the values of these structures and elements necessary. That demands measures of values. The most important values in the concept of Cultural Landscape Care are the age of landscape elements or structures, their specificity and rarity relating to the regional context, their aesthetic quality and their importance for the regional identity. These criteria are a mixture of nature and monument conservation issues as well as regional planning concerns. In the federal state of Saarland this approach has been applied very successfully in a model project.

The third step is to bring together all the related institutions, societies and persons to discuss strategies of landscape management. Once again, the

main idea is to use the heritage in our landscapes for regional development not to put the landscape under a 'cheese cover'. It is very important to stress that cultural landscape care expressly accepts the evolution of landscapes, if historical assets, considered as potential for future development, are not destroyed. (Agnoletti, 2006)

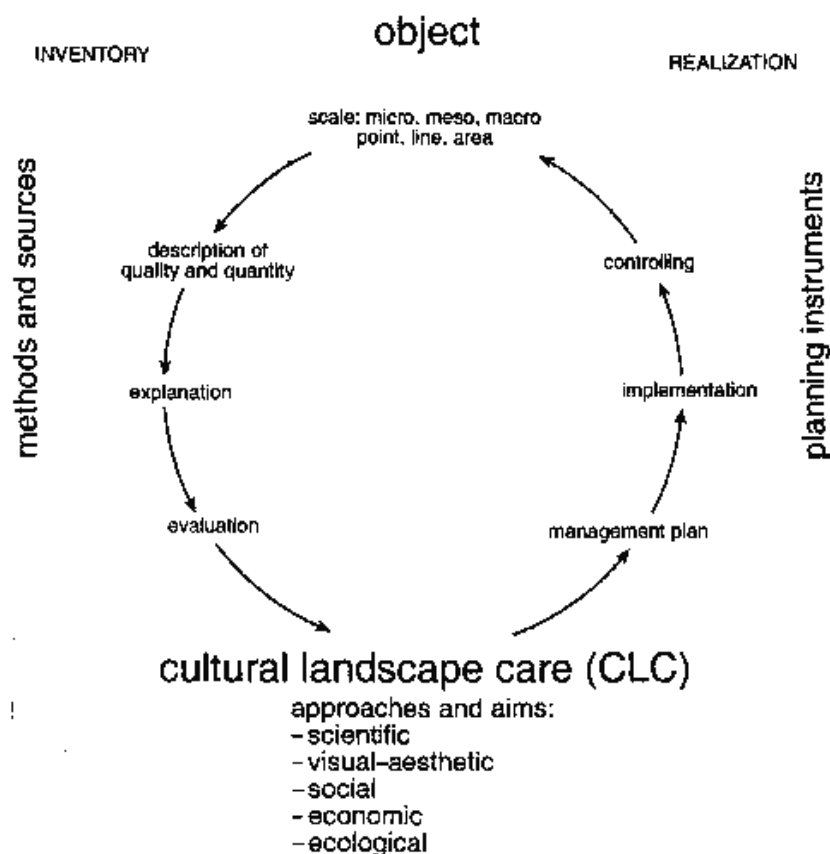


Figure 24. The concept 'cultural landscape care' as a circle of discussions³³

4.2.8. Requirements for Management of Cultural Landscapes

It is necessary to distinguish between the requirements for effective management and the principles of landscape management in cultural landscapes. Although the challenge of managing cultural landscapes will be difficult, there is much experience to draw on already, particularly in well

³³ Schenk et al., (1997) cited in Agnoletti, M. (2006)

managed protected landscapes. (Agnoletti, 2006: 391) Requirements can be listed as follows:

- Sound legal basis for the management of the area, based in national law, but reflected also in site specific regulations.
- A national authority with expertise and resources to oversee policy and implementation for the protection of cultural landscapes.
- A managing body at the local level, able to call on a range of professional expertise.
- Ways of providing two-way communication between the people living in, and / or working within the cultural landscapes; other interests such as visitors and commercial concerns; and the managing body.
- A continuing monitoring and feed – back process which ensures that policies are kept under review at the national land local levels – and revised should this be required.

In addition to that, Agnoletti lists principles to guide management of organically – evolving cultural landscapes as follows: (Agnoletti, 2006: 391)

- Landscape protection requires the presence of a vital and sound local economy. It is also true that landscape resources are needed to ensure that development can be sustainable. Thus the management of an organically – evolving cultural landscape is, in fact the management of the local economy and of change.
- Landscape protection requires the support and involvement of the local people. Thus protection must be seen to be in their interests, using educational and financial incentives, and local powers of decision.
- The basic resources of the area (natural and cultural) should be recorded, examined and protected.
- Planning and management in the area should involve the public discussion of options.

- Regulatory measures are necessary, but they should be flexible and respect the rights, interests and needs of local people.
- The traditional knowledge of local people in sustainable land use should be respected and supported.
- No cultural landscape can survive in isolation from the areas around it.

According to Philipps (1995) landscape has three basic prerequisites: a typology, methods of evaluation and ways of management. As landscapes are distinct entities on a specific hierarchic level of biosphere, their characterisation, evaluation and protection needs specific methodologies which are different from those used for the protection of single monuments or ecosystems. (Haber, 1995, cited in Agnoletti, 2006: 396 cited in Agnoletti 2006:396) This is especially obvious for cultural landscapes. In a broad definition, all landscapes of the world can be viewed as “cultural landscapes”, regarding the fact that man even in historic times has more or less influenced all regions of the world. Therefore the simple alternative of presence or absence of man’s influence on nature is not valid as a basic criterion for the evaluation of landscapes. (Agnoletti, 2006: 396)

4.2.9. Guidance on Protected Landscapes and Organizational Responsibility

The general objectives on conservation of cultural landscape can be summarized as follows:

- To maintain the harmonious interaction of nature and culture through the protection of landscape and the continuation of traditional land use, building practices and social and cultural manifestations.
- To support lifestyles and economic activities which are in harmony with nature and the preservation of the social and cultural fabric of the communities concerned.

- To maintain the diversity of landscape and habitat, and of associated species and ecosystems.
- To eliminate where necessary, and thereafter prevent, land uses and activities which are inappropriate in scale and / or character
- To provide opportunities for public enjoyment through recreation and tourism appropriate in type and scale to the essential qualities of the area
- To encourage scientific and educational activities which will contribute to the long-term well being of resident populations and to the development of public support for the environmental protection of such areas, and
- To bring benefits to, and to contribute to the welfare of, the local community through the provision of natural products (such as forest and fisheries products) and services (such as clean water or income derived from sustainable forms of tourism)

As it is mentioned before, management defines the relationships between the interest groups and the legal means and provisions under which the process will be sustained. Successful management therefore, will involve cooperation between the government and its related institutions, academics and public.

The area may be owned by a public authority, but it is more likely to comprise a mosaic of private and public ownerships operating a variety of management regimes. These regimes should be subject to a degree of planning or other control, and supported, where appropriate, by public funding and other incentives, to ensure that the quality of the landscape and the relevant local customs and beliefs are maintained in the long term. (Droste, B. von, Plachter, H., Rössler, M., 1995: 386)

4.3. Conclusion

In conclusion, Troad Region as an archaeological landscape is tried to have been defined by different geographers, archaeologists and some other disciplines throughout the centuries. As Cook states (1973) “A study of the topography of the Troad begins with Homer and Strabo.” In general, this land covers a large area in the South – West part of the Anatolia. However, even in the ancient times it had disagreements about the limits of the area.

Today, National Park Area of the region which is defined in 1970s, basically aims to protect the area within its boundaries. It is understood that the limitation of the area into this current boundaries has no concrete archaeological, historical, geographical or any other logical reason in terms of social or scientific studies. Basically, explicit geographical limitations on the East part and current highway in the West which reaches Izmir in the South, defines the main structure of the National Park boundaries. As a result, the conservation plan which is legally built upon this strictly defined piece of land, only considers the cultural and natural assets that exist inside of the National Park area and it neglects its historical or current relations with cultural, natural assets or other settlements at the outskirts. (Figure 25)

It can be said that the problem of the planning studies of the Troad Region starts at this point. It tries to fulfil the to do list of the legal obligations defined by the national law and technical regulations. Within a defined National Park boundaries, it tries to answer the relevant requirements determined in the outline given in the technical specifications which is same for all the conservation areas. Basic characters are defined under these headings without constructing any archaeological or historical relations between the inputs given in the analysis part. So, in that manner, the dominant character which gives the significance to the area might escape notice no matter how good is the plan in its own structure. In that respect, the qualified understanding, defining and evaluating of **archaeological landscape**

characteristics of the area gains importance since it reveals the overall value and ‘identity’ of the region in a gradual grasp of each aspect of archaeological landscape characteristics.

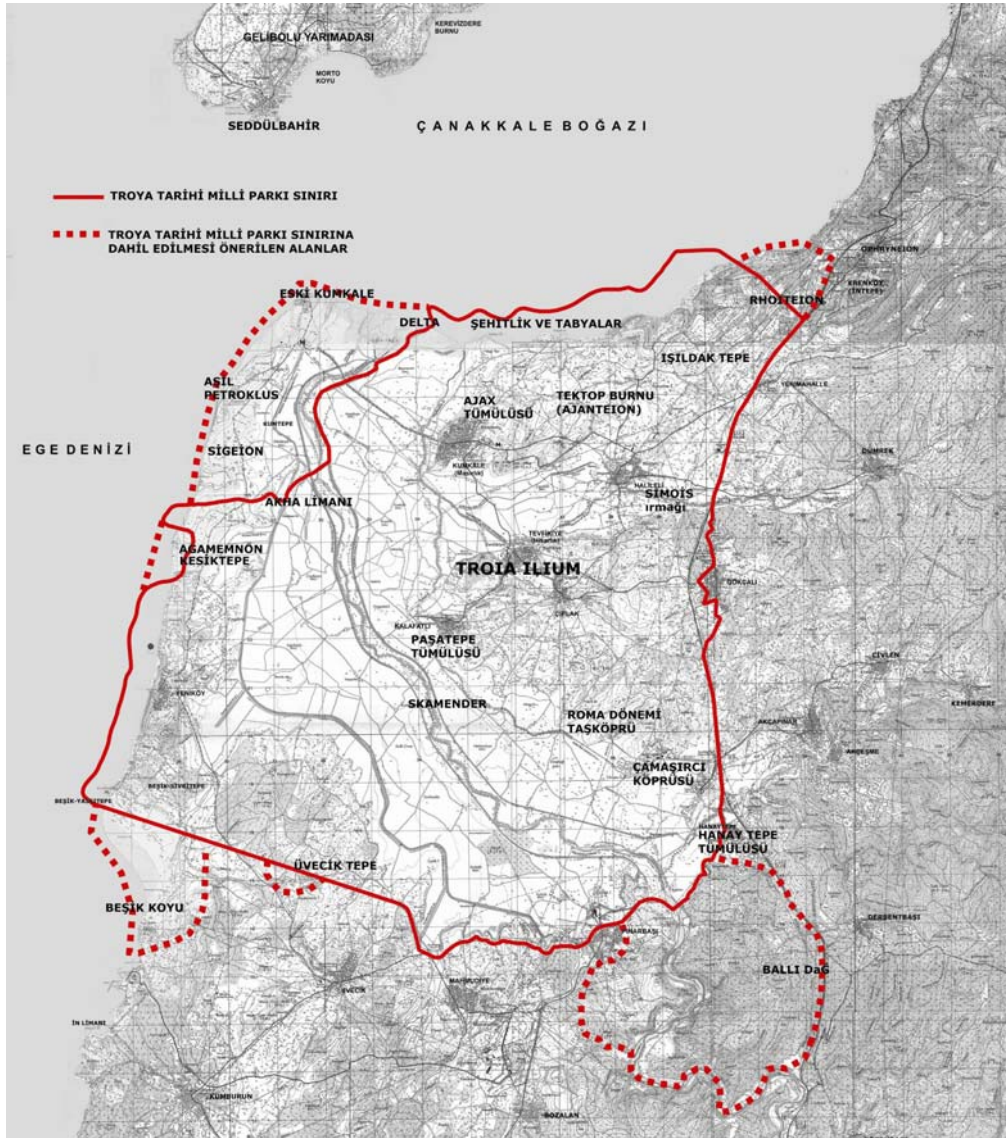


Figure 25. Proposed National Park Boundary of the Urban Design Studio³⁴

As it is mentioned in the previous chapters, Troia and the Troad Region have great magnitude as means of many different aspects. First of all, the area is believed that “Trojan War” actually happened. It is an immortalized place through epic poems thanks to Homeros. In these greatly esteemed literature

³⁴ METU, UD, 2007

beings, Homeros describes the characteristics of the area which had been a setting for a 10 year war between heroic Trojan and Spartan warriors. Thus, having a Homeric geography for the area becomes one of the most important archaeological landscape characteristic of the Region.

Then, various periods of its history end up with many archaeological settlements and some other monumental heritage which are left us today. Being historically on crossroads, the region has a long history of settlements. Some of the settlements date back to 6000 BC, having been occupied continuously from 3000 BC to the end of the second millennium. (Troia I-VII). Some of these, Hisarlık itself mainly, are important places where 'archaeology' began together with the pioneering experiments with new methods conducted.

Apart from these, Troad region has had significant geologic and geomorphologic formation throughout the centuries which makes it worth of studying on that manner. It also has fertile lands suitable for irrigated agriculture and some unique ecological characteristics as well.

In addition, together with the things mentioned above, the ethnic richness it had and still has makes the site of Troia and the surrounding terrain a prominent phenomenon in the cultural history of mankind.

Troad Region has a wide range of archaeological landscape characteristics offering so many study fields and techniques to the scholars from different disciplines. People lived in the area in the past and living in the area today also make it possible to stress the interrelationships among people and traces, places and features, in space and through time which is an important aspect for emphasizing the organic or functional relation between parts and the whole of the landscape perspective.

When it comes to the different approaches according to the scholars' background and interest, Troad Region proves its richness by offering a great deal to each of the headings; which are, cultural – historical approach, processual approaches (archaeological survey, off site and quantitative studies, catchment analysis, settlement archaeology, and various ecosystem approaches.), post – processual approaches to phenomenological, ideational, and symbolic/religious landscape.

According to the Preucel and Hodder's Classification, it is also a **landscape as environment**, which one can study the man's roles in the prehistoric ecosystems of which he was a member' and a **landscape as a system** which has a pattern of off-site and settlement based activities, etc. as it is described in detail in the previous chapter.

A Management plan study for the area should consider these aspects and take Troad into consideration as an archaeological landscape accordingly. It is a conceptualized and ideational according to the UNESCO's description of cultural landscape which is an important aspect in for the task of planning. Within the plan decisions, it is also important to emphasize its **palimpsest** characteristics (multi – layered feature) in that it has different levels of preservation and loss of individual features through time. As a result, the inherited landscape has to contain a mix of features from different dates, however, when it is necessary the emphasize can be stressed into one specific layer especially when **signature** characteristics are obvious.

Examining landscape archaeology issues and approaches gives insightful and comprehensive way of look to the Region and other possible conservation and management plans in that respect. As it is discussed in the previous chapters, studying archaeologies of landscapes makes us consider the area we focus in a wider perspective and integrates the works of people from different disciplines. Such a grasp obviously will lead to a better understanding of the 'identity' of the area, the threats it faced with, and the

opportunities it has to conserve and interpret its constructed and conceptualized features and strengthen its identity.

REFERENCES

Agnoletti, M. (Ed.) (2006). *The Conservation of Cultural Landscapes*. Wallingford, UK ; Cambridge, MA : CABI.

Ashmore, W. & Knapp, A.B. (Ed.). (1999). *Archaeologies of Landscape: Contemporary Perspectives*. Malden, Mass: Blackwell.

Barker, G. (1992). *From bones to farmers: The contribution of archaeozoology to landscape archaeology*. In Bernardi, M. (ed.), *Archeologia del paesaggio*, Volume 1, Firenze :pp. 265–285.

Bintliff, J. (1991). *Troia Und seine Palaolandschaften*. Bonn: Rudolf Habelt.

Brandau, B. (2002), *Troya, Bir Kent ve Mitleri, Yeni Keşifler*, Translation: Vedat Çorlu, İstanbul: Arkadaş Yayınevi.

Brandau, B., Schickert, H., Jablonka, P., (2004), *Resimlerle Troya*, Münih: Arkadaş.

Carman, J. (2002). *Archaeology and Heritage : An Introduction*. London ; New York : Continuum.

Cleere. H. (1984). *Approaches to the Archeological Heritage, A Comperative Study of World Cultural Resource Management Systems*, Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Cleere, H. (1989). *Archaeological Heritage Management in the Modern World*. London: Unwin Hyman.

Cleere. H. (1996). *Protecting the World's Cultural Heritage*. London: Butterworths.

Cook, J.M. (1973). *The Troad. An Archaeological and Topographical Study*. Oxford: Clarendon.

Council of Europe (2002). *A Review of Polices and Practice*. European Cultural Heritage, Volume II.

Droste, B. von, Plachter, H., Rössler, M. (Ed.). (1995). *Cultural Landscapes of Universal Value: Components of a Global Strategy*. Jena, New York : Gustav Fischer Verlag in cooperation with UNESCO.

Egeplan Planlama Ltd., *UDGP (2002), Troya Tarihi Milli Parkı Uzun Devreli Gelişme Planı Raporu*, Unpublished report.

Feilden, B.M. & Jokilehto, J. (1998). *Management Guidelines For World Cultural Heritage Sites*. Rome: ICCROM.

Fox, C. (1923). *Archaeology of the Cambridge Region*. Cambridge The University press.

Grzymiski, K. (2004). *Landscape Archaeology of Nubia and Central Sudan*. African Archaeological Review, Volume 21, Number 1: pp 7-30: Springer Netherlands. <<http://www.springerlink.com/content/k1511133j3416551>> viewed May 20, 2009.

Homer's *İlyada*, Çeviri: Erhat, A. & Kadir, A. (2005), İstanbul: Can Yayınları.

Karpati, T.H. (2008). *Management of world heritage sites: the management plan as an effective tool for the safeguarding of heritage*. Saarbrücken : VDM Verlag.

Kayan İ. (1995). *The Troia bay and supposed harbour sites in the Bronze Age*. Studia Troica, Band 5: p. 211-235.

Kayan, İ. (2005), *Karamenderes Deltasının (Çanakkale) Holosen Stratigrafisi ve Troya Jeoarkeolojisi Bakımından Değerlendirmesi*. Türkiye Kuvaterner Sempozyumu, TURQUA-V İTÜ Avrasya Yer Bilimleri Enstitüsü 77 2-5 Haziran 2005.

Korfmann, M. (1995). *Troia: A Residential and Trading City at the Dardanelles*. In R. Laffineur and W-D. Niemeier (Eds.), *Politeia: Society and State in the Aegean Bronze Age [Aegaeum 12]: Liège I*: pp. 173-183.

Kraft, J. C., Rapp, G. R., Kayan İ., Luce, J. V. (2003), "Harbor areas at ancient Troy: Sedimentology and geomorphology complement Homer's Iliad", *GEOLOGY*, February 2003.

Kraft, J. C., Kayan İ., Brückner, H., Rapp, G., (2003), “*Sedimentary Facies Patterns and the Interpretation of Paleogeographies of Ancient Troia*”, Troia and the Troad, Eds: G. Wagner, E. Pernicka, H. Uerpmann, Springer Verlag.

Kültür Bakanlığı (1996), *Gravürlerle Türkiye, Anadolu*, Kültür Bakanlığı Yayınları, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi.

Latacz, J., et al. (2001), *Troia: düşün ve gerçek*, Çeviri: Selma Bulgurlu Gün, Mercedes-Benz Türk A.Ş., İstanbul: Homer Kitabevi.

Luce, J.V. (c1998). *Celebrating Homer's: Troy and Ithaca revisited*. New Haven : Yale University Press.

METU, Urban Design Studio. (2007) *Troia Museum Preliminary Studies*, Unpublished report.

Öz, N.B. (2002). *Management of Archaeological Sites. Case Study : Magnesia ad Maeandrum*. Unpublished Master Thesis for Restoration Programme, METU, Ankara.

Phillips, Adrian. (1998). *The nature of cultural landscapes—A nature conservation perspective*. Landscape Research 23(1), 21-38.

Piri Reis (2002), *Kitab-ı Bahriye*, Republic of Turkey, Prime Ministry, Undersecretaryship of Navigation, Ankara: Nurol Matbaası.

Preucel, R. & Hodder, I. (Ed.). (1996). *Contemporary Archaeology in Theory: A Reader*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Sauer, C. (1925). *The Morphology of Landscape*. University of California Publications in Geography 2: pp.19-53.

Schlimann, H. (First published 1884, reissued 1967), *Troja, Results of the Latest Researches and Discoveries on the Site of Homer's Troy, 1882*. New York: Benjamin Blom.

Stoddart S.K.F. & Zubrow E. (1999). *Changing places*. Antiquity, Volume 73, Number 281:pp. 686–688.

Strabon (1987), *Coğrafya : Anadolu XII, XIII, XIV. Kitap*, Çeviri : Prof.Dr. Adnan Pekman, Arkeoloji ve Sanat Yayınları.

Strabon (2006), Geography, <<http://soltdm.com/sources/mss/strab/strabo.htm>> viewed March 10, 2009.

Teutonico, J.M. & Palumbo, G. (Ed.).(c2002). *Management Planning for Archaeological Sites : an international workshop organized by the Getty Conservation Institute and Loyola Marymount University, 19-22 May 2000, Corinth, Greece* .Los Angeles: Getty Conservation Institute.

Tuan, Y.F. (1971). *Geography, Phenomenology and the Study of Human Nature*. Canadian Geographer, Volume 15: pp. 181-192.

Thomas, J. (2001). *Archaeologies of Place and Landscape*. In *Archaeological Theory Today*, edited by I. Hodder. pp. 163-186. Malden: Polity.

Tilley, C. (1994). *A Phenomenology of Landscape*. Oxford: Berg.

T.C. Orman Bakanlığı, Milli Parklar Dairesi (1971). *Master Plan for Protection and Use Troy Historical National Park*.

Wagner, G.A. & Pernica, E. & Uerpmann, H.P. (Ed.).(2003). *Troia and the Troad : Scientific Approaches*. Berlin ; New York : Springer.

Wilkinson, T. J. (2003). *Archaeological landscapes of the Near East*. Tucson, Arizona: University of Arizona Press.

<www.canakkaletavel.com/canakkale/ezine/index.htm> viewed March 19,2009

<http://www.uni-trier.de/fileadmin/organisation/Presse/andere_Publikationen/rede_troia_korfmann-english.pdf> viewed June 11, 2009

<historic-cities.huji.ac.il/turkey/dardanelles> viewed July 10, 2009

<<http://archeologiamedievale.unisi.it/NewPages/COLLANE/TESTIQDS/paesaggio/08.rtf>> viewed June 11, 2009

<http://archaeology.about.com/library/glossary/bldef_landscape.htm>viewed March 19, 2009

<<http://www.reference-wordsmith.com/cgi-bin/lookup.cgi?exact=1&terms=landscape>> viewed June 20, 2009

<<http://www.answers.com/topic/palaeoeconomy>> viewed August 5, 2009

<<http://www.answers.com/topic/off-site>> viewed August 10, 2009

<<http://www.seslisozluk.com/?word=taphonomy&sbT=Search&ssQBy>> viewed August 20, 2009

<<http://www.ub.uni-heidelberg.de/ebind/docs/schliemann1884/schliemann1884515.jpg>> viewed August 20, 2009

<www.uni-tuebingen.de/Troya/st/three/ab/english/ab7eng.html> viewed August 8, 2009

<www.galenfrysinger.com> viewed March 9, 2009

<<http://erc.unesco.org>> viewed December 22, 2009

<<http://www.milliparklar.gov.tr>> viewed May 7, 2009

<<http://www.kultur.gov.tr>> viewed December 23, 2009

<www.uni-tuebingen.de/troia/eng/> viewed June 6, 2009